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An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales: with Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, some Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor King. By David Collins, Esq. late Judge Advocate and Secretary of the Colony. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards, Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

AN unexampled and very distant colonisation, in an island of which scarcely any knowledge had been previously acquired, was perhaps a rash attempt; but it was probable that it might become the source of instruction and benefit. The separation of a body of convicts from that society which had been injured by their violation of the rules of morality, religion, and social order, might afford various subjects of speculation. To perceive the mind gradually returning (if indeed it should ever happen to return) from that bent which it had taken in consequence of bad example, innate profligacy, or an unlimited indulgence of the most licentious passions, would be an object of curiosity; nor would it be less interesting to survey the contest between hardened villany on one side, and, on the other, the joint allurements of good example, rewards for returning virtue, and punishments for continued vice. If the colonised part of New South-Wales be not naturally fertile; if the colonists were for a time wholly occupied in supplying themselves with subsistence till the arrival of fresh stores from distant regions; if little therefore could be added to our knowledge of the country and its productions in more fertile spots; the history of the mind will at least have been illustrated by its exertions in new and untried situations; something must have been forced on the observation of the new inhabitants, though eagerly intent on their necessary labours. In other points, curiosity is amply gratified. We perceive, in

numerous inſtances, guilt ſtruggling with the internal ſeelings of conſcience, combating with the ſuperior luſtre and the more comfortable rewards of an honeſt and induſtrious life. We perceive virtue and honeſty alternately conquering and conquered: but, on the whole, we obſerve a pleaſing proſpect of returning regularity; and the example of penitence may have the ſtrongeſt influence on ſucceeding convicts.

We have not been inattentive to this new ſcheme of reforming vice and correcting the moſt guilty tendencies. The opinion which we early gave of the utility, and alſo of the inconveniences of the ſcheme, is not materially changed by the events; and we may ſtill obſerve that the latter are great and obvious, and the former doubtful or inconſiderable.

In the preſent volume, Mr. Collins has given a regular journal of the original voyage, and of the tranſactions of the new colony. In peruſing his work, we follow the ſettlers in every ſtep; we find them on the verge of famine; we ſee the community diſturbed by the atrocious conduct of ſome of the convicts, and injured in thoſe points on which the exiſtence of the whole depended, by the unthinking villany of the moſt abandoned reprobates, who muſt themſelves have ſuffered in the general ruin.

The journal is frequently a regiſter of crimes and puniſhments; of ingenuity ſtruggling againſt the ſtrict rules of ſocial order, to return to the paths of vice. Sometimes, the narrative is painful from the diſtreſſes to which the convicts, and the perſons appointed to guard and ſuperintend them, have been expoſed; and we cannot avoid aſking the common queſtion, '*cui bono?*' while the objections, ſtated to the ſcheme before it was carried into execution, return.

New Holland is the largeſt of all the iſlands hitherto diſcovered: many, indeed, conſider it as worthy of the name of a continent. Captain Cook, examining the bay ſo diſtinguiſhed for the novelty and variety of its botanical riches, was induced, on this and on other accounts, to colour the deſcription of it too highly; and it was reſolved, that a colonial eſtabliſhment of a new kind ſhould be formed near that ſpot. As Botany Bay, however, was found to have few recommendations for this purpoſe, Port Jackſon was preferred. Even about this port, the country appears to be infertile: it ends in a rill, rather than a river; and, to the weſt, are hills, with few intervals of ſavannahs.

In the ſpot thus choſen for a ſettlement, nature ſeemed to combine with the indolence and the depravity of the convicts, to retard cultivation; and various accidents happened to the cattle, which could not eaſily be replaced. It was not before the year 1794, that the coloniſts had a reaſonable proſpect of no

longer depending on the mother country for the ſupply of the moſt eſſential articles. While the ſoil in the neighbourhood of Port Jackſon has been unproductive, Norfolk Iſland, ſituated at a diſtance in the Eaſtern Ocean, in a ſimilar climate, but bleſſed with a more fertile ſoil, has proſpered in compariſon. Yet here the ſettlers begin to feel the oppoſite inconvenience. Induſtry is checked for want of a market; and the induſtrious cultivator is obliged to return to the military life, for want of that excitement to labour, which its reward produces. The flax of this iſland is of a very good quality; but, though it was ſelected as a ſettlement chiefly for the cultivation of that article, the ſucceſs of the management has been inconſiderable. The New-Zealanders, from whom the art was to be learned, unwilling to leave their habitations, and uneaſy when they had been carried to Norfolk Iſland, only gave imperfect information. Yet, amidſt all impediments, the manufacture of canvas is going on, and may probably terminate to the benefit of the country which has foſtered theſe ſettlements at an uncommon expenſe.

On the north of Port Jackſon is a navigable river named the Hawkeſbury, which, like the Nile, occaſionally overflows its banks. The neighbourhood of this ſtream is highly fertile. If the original ſearch had extended ſo far, this diſtrict, we may ſuppoſe, would have been preferred to the former; and it is not difficult to foreſee that the ſeat of population, if not of government, will ſoon be transferred to the banks of the Hawkeſbury. On the weſt, when the hills have been aſcended, ground more fruitful, and ſavannahs more extenſive, have been diſcovered; and, on the ſouthern and the ſouth-weſtern ſhores, coal and lime may be found. It is ſurpriſing, that, when various ſhips, belonging to government and to merchants, have lain for ſome time at Port Jackſon, no enterpriſing officers have endeavoured to examine the neighbouring ſhores in their long boats and yawls. When we conſider the adventurous exploits of Mr. Whidbey, in the voyage of Vancouver, we are aſtoniſhed at the neglect of theſe opportunities.

The longitude of Paramatta, the ſeat of government, ſituated on the rill which falls into the harbour of Jackſon, is 151° 18′ 8″ eaſt, from Greenwich; and its latitude is 33° 48′ ſouth. The land is cold, wet, acrid, and unproductive, from the droppings of the gum trees and ſimilar vegetables. Of ſome excurſions, which have been made from this ſettlement, we ſhall add an account in the author's words.

'Captain Paterſon, of the New South Wales corps, an account of whoſe journies in Africa appeared in print ſome years ago, conceiving that he might be able to penetrate as far as, or even beyond,

the weſtern mountains, (commonly known in the colony by the name of the Blue Mountains, from the appearance which land ſo high and diſtant generally wears), ſet off from the ſettlement with a ſmall party of gentlemen, (captain Johnſton, Mr. Palmer, and Mr. Laing the aſſiſtant-ſurgeon,) well provided with arms, and having proviſions and neceſſaries ſufficient for a journey of ſix weeks, to make the attempt. Boats were ſent round to Broken Bay, whence they got into the Hawkeſbury, and the fourth day reached as far as Richmond hill. At this place, in the year 1789, the governor's progreſs up the river was obſtructed by a fall of water, which his boats were too heavy to drag over. This difficulty captain Paterſon overcame by quitting his large boats, and proceeding from Richmond hill with two that were ſmaller and lighter. He found that this part of the river carried him to the weſtward, and into the chaſm that divided the high land ſeen from Richmond hill. Hither, however, he got with great difficulty and ſome danger, meeting in the ſpace of about ten miles with not leſs than five waterfalls, one of which was rather ſteep, and was running at the rate of ten or twelve miles an hour. Above this part the water was about fifteen yards from ſide to ſide, and came down with ſome rapidity, a fall of rain having ſwollen the ſtream. Their navigation was here ſo intricate, lying between large pieces of rock that had been borne down by torrents, and ſome ſtumps of trees which they could not always ſee, that (after having looſened a plank in one boat, and driven the other upon a ſtump which forced its way through her bottom) they gave up any further progreſs, leaving the weſtern mountains to be the object of diſcovery at ſome future day. It was ſuppoſed that they had proceeded ten miles farther up the river than had ever before been done, and named that part of it which until then had been unſeen, "the Grose;" and a high peak of land, which they had in view in the chaſm, they called "Harrington Peak."

'Captain Paterſon, as a botaniſt, was amply rewarded for his labour and diſappointment by diſcovering ſeveral new plants. Of the ſoil in which they grew, he did not, however, ſpeak very favourably.' P. 312.

'A paſſage over the inland mountains which form the weſtern boundary of the county of Cumberland being deemed practicable, Henry Hacking, a ſeaman, ſet off on the 20th of the month, with a companion or two, determined to try it. On the 27th they returned with an account of their having penetrated twenty miles further inland than any other European. Hacking reported, that on reaching the mountains, his further route lay over eighteen or nineteen ridges of high rocks; and that when he halted, determined to return, he ſtill had in view before him the ſame wild and inacceſſible kind of country. The ſummits of theſe rocks were of iron

ſtone, large fragments of which had covered the intermediate valleys, in which water of a reddiſh tinge was obſerved to ſtagnate in many ſpots. The ſoil midway up the aſcent appeared good, and afforded ſhelter and food for ſeveral red kangooroos. The ground every where bore ſigns of being frequently viſited by high winds; for on the ſides expoſed to the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt it was ſtrewed with the trunks of large trees. They ſaw but one native in this deſolate region, and he fled from their approach, preferring the enjoyments of his rocks and woods, with liberty, to any intercourſe with them. Theſe hills appearing to extend very far to the northward and ſouthward, an impaſſable barrier ſeemed fixed to the weſtward; and little hope was left of our extending cultivation beyond the limits of the county of Cumberland.' P. 384.

The natives are apparently very near the Negro race; and we might almoſt conſider them as ſuch, from their ſunken eyes, projecting inferior maxillæ, long ſlender legs, and long arms. The red colour, however, of the new-born children, the want of woolly hair, and of the incurvated leg, ſhow that they are diſtinct; and they are probably a degenerated race of Malays. They appeared at firſt ſtupid, ſullen, and incapable of mental cultivation. For a time, they avoided their new neighbours, and, when compelled to ſtay with them, ſeemed highly diſpleaſed. They have ſince, however, been more ſociable; and the younger natives have cheerfully aſſociated with the coloniſts, and aſſiſted in their labours. Ben-nil-long was in England; but he afforded no favourable ſpecimen of the inhabitants of New South Wales. Yet he obſerved the manners of Europeans with care, and imitated them with ſucceſs. Of his clothes he ſeemed proud; but he forſook them occaſionally; and there is reaſon to think that he has, by this time, returned, like the educated gypſey, to his former habits.—But, before we conſider more fully the manners of the inhabitants, we ſhall add one extract. We fear, *mutato nomine*, that the accident may have been ſimilar, as it was probably on a neighbouring ſpot, to the fatal termination of the life of La Pérouſe.

'Captain Bligh was particularly inſtructed to ſurvey the ſtraits which ſeparate New Holland from New Guinea. By the accounts of his voyage which reached us, we found that the two ſhips Providence and Aſſiſtance were twenty days from their entrance into the ſtrait to their finding themſelves again in an open ſea. The navigation through this paſſage was deſcribed as the moſt dangerous ever performed by any navigator, abounding in every direction with iſlands, breakers, and ſhoals, through which they purſued their courſe with the utmoſt difficulty. In one day, on anchoring to avoid danger, the Providence broke two of her anchors; and as the eaſtern monſoon was blowing, (the month of September 1792,)

and the paſſage which they were exploring was extremely narrow it became impoſſible to beat back. From ſome of the iſlands eight canoes formed the daring attempt of attacking the armed tender, and with their arrows killed one and wounded two of the ſeamen. Some of theſe canoes were ſixty or ſeventy feet long, and in one of them twenty-two perſons were counted.' P. 355.

The general remarks on the people relate to their government and religion, ſtature and appearance, habitations, courtſhip and marriage, cuſtoms and manners, ſuperſtitions, diſeaſes, property, diſpoſitions, funeral ceremonies, and language. We ſhall notice ſome of the more remarkable circumſtances.

Their government is evidently patriarchal; the chief command of a family reſts in the parents; and to a family others are attached, particularly the adopted children, who obey with equal readineſs. Their tribes are numerous; but no ſuperiority ſeems to belong to any particular tribe, except that which is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Cam-mer-ray. Of this tribe are their prieſts or ſorcerers, who have the ſupreme direction of their ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. How the men of Cam-mer-ray attained their pre-eminence, is not known; but they are ſtronger and more active than the other tribes. It is a ſingular circumſtance, that theſe ſavages have no religion. We ſhall ſelect ſome of our author's obſervations on this ſubject.

'I am certain that they do not worſhip either ſun, moon, or ſtar; that, however neceſſary fire may be to them, it is not an object of adoration; neither have they reſpect for any particular beaſt, bird, or fiſh. I never could diſcover any object, either ſubſtantial or imaginary, that impelled them to the commiſſion of good actions, or deterred them from the perpetration of what we deem crimes. There indeed exiſted among them ſome idea of a future ſtate, but not connected in anywiſe with religion; for it had no influence whatever on their lives and actions. On their being often queſtioned as to what became of them after their deceaſe, ſome anſwered that they went either on or beyond the great water; but by far the greater number ſignified, that they went to the clouds. Converſing with Ben-nil-long after his return from England, where he had obtained much knowledge of our cuſtoms and manners, I wiſhed to learn what were his ideas of the place from which his countrymen came, and led him to the ſubject by obſerving, that all the white men here came from England. I then aſked him where the black men (or Eora) came from? He heſitated.—Did they come from any iſland? His anſwer was, that he knew of none: they came from the clouds (alluding perhaps to the aborigines of the country); and when they died, they returned to the clouds (Boo-row-e). He wiſhed to make me underſtand that they aſcended in the ſhape of little children, firſt hovering in the tops and in the branches of trees;

and mentioned ſomething about their eating, in that ſtate, their favourite food, little fiſhes.' P. 547.

The cuſtoms are thoſe of ſavage nations. The boys, when they become men, are obliged to ſubmit to the loſs of one of their fore-teeth; an operation performed with ridiculous ceremonies. The women cut off the two firſt joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they think them an impediment in winding their fiſhing lines. The men alſo perforate the *ſeptum naſi*, and introduce into the opening a ſmall bone of the kangooroo.

Their habitations and mode of living are extremely rude and uncomfortable. They are ſcarcely defended from the cold; and their food is ſcanty, precarious, and (except when they feed on fiſh) unalimentary. Their marriages reſemble thoſe of the Romans with the Sabine women: the females are carried off by force. On theſe occaſions, cruelty is added to violence. Intended wives

'are, I believe,' (ſays Mr. Collins) 'always ſelected from the women of a tribe different from that of the males, (for they ought not to be dignified with the title of men), and with whom they are at enmity. Secreſy is neceſſarily obſerved, and the poor wretch is ſtolen upon in the abſence of her protectors; being firſt ſtupified with blows, inflicted with clubs or wooden ſwords, on the head, back, and ſhoulders, every one of which is followed by a ſtream of blood, ſhe is dragged through the woods by one arm, with a perſeverance and violence that one might ſuppoſe would diſplace it from its ſocket; the lover, or rather the raviſher, is regardleſs of the ſtones or broken pieces of trees which may lie in his route, being anxious only to convey his prize in ſafety to his own party, where a ſcene enſues too ſhocking to relate. This outrage is not reſented by the relations of the female, who only retaliate by a ſimilar outrage when they find it in their power. This is ſo conſtantly the practice among them, that even the children make it a game or exerciſe; and I have often, on hearing the cries of the girls with whom they were playing, run out of my houſe, thinking ſome murder was committed, but have found the whole party laughing at my miſtake.' P. 559.

Their mimic battles are of courſe deſigned to give them the more perfect command of the ſpear and ſhield: but they too often engage in real hoſtility, even in caſes of natural death.

'On the death of a perſon, whether male or female, old or young, the friends of the deceaſed muſt be puniſhed, as if the death were occaſioned by their neglect.' P. 586.

'Bone-da, a very fine youth, who lived at my houſe for ſeveral months, died of a cold, which, ſettling in his face, terminated in a

mortification of his upper and lower jaws, and carried him off. We were told that ſome blood muſt be ſpilt on this occaſion; but ſix weeks elapſed before we heard of any thing having happened in conſequence of his deceaſe. About that time having paſſed, however, we heard that a large party of natives belonging to different tribes, being aſſembled at Pan-ner-rong, (or, as it is named with us, Roſe Bay,) the ſpot which they had often choſen for ſhedding blood, after dancing and feaſting over-night, early in the morning, Mo-roo-ber-ra, the brother, and Cole-be, another relation of Bone-da, ſeized upon a lad named Tar-ra-bil-long, and with a club each gave him a wound in his head, which laid the ſkull bare. Da-ring-ha, the ſiſter of Bone-da, had her ſhare in the bloody rite, and puſhed at the unoffending boy with a doo-ull or ſhort ſpear. He was brought into the town and placed at the hoſpital, and, though the ſurgeon pronounced from the nature of his wounds that his recovery was rather doubtful, he was ſeen walking about the day following. On being ſpoke to about the buſineſs, he ſaid he did not weep or cry out like a boy, but like a man cried ki-yah when they ſtruck him; that the perſons who treated him in this unfriendly manner were no longer his enemies, but would eat or drink or ſit with him as friends.

'Three or four days after this, Go-roo-bine, a grey-headed man, apparently upwards of ſixty years of age, who was related to Bone-da, came in with a ſevere wound on the back part of his head, given him on account of the boy's deceaſe; neither youth nor old age appearing to be exempted from thoſe ſanguinary cuſtoms.' P. 588.

Our author thinks theſe ſavages brave; but they ſeem to us to be only inſenſible, or to poſſeſs merely paſſive courage. Life has few charms for them; and they are indifferent about it. They certainly, however, diſdain any ſuperiority that is not perſonal.

Among their diſeaſes we find the venereal contagion. Mr. Collins ſeems to doubt whether this diſeaſe was introduced among them by their European viſitants, as they have an appropriate name for it; but untutored children of nature ſoon learn to affix names; and it would have been of more conſequence to have obſerved, that the name has no reference to its importation. They have the ſmall pox endemial among them, or a ſimilar diſeaſe which makes conſiderable devaſtation. They burn their dead, if the latter have paſſed the middle age; but the younger are buried. If the mother die while a child is at the breaſt, the infant is conſigned alive to the ſame grave. It does not appear, that the inhabitants of the diſtricts bordering on Port Jackſon are cannibals.

As we have chiefly attended to the work, we have undeſignedly overlooked the author. Before we ſeparate, we muſt be allowed to ſpeak of him and his object.

'To the public the following work is with respectful deference submitted by its author, who trusts that it will be found to comprise much information interesting in its nature, and that has not been anticipated by any former productions on the same subject. If he should be thought to have been sometimes too minute in his detail, he hopes it will be considered, that the transactions here recorded were penned as they occurred, with the feelings that at the moment they naturally excited in the mind; and that circumstances which, to an indifferent reader, may appear trivial, to a spectator and participant seem often of importance. To the design of this work, (which was, to furnish a complete record of the transactions of the colony from its foundation,) accuracy and a degree of minuteness in detail seemed essential; and on reviewing his manuscript, the author saw little that, consistently with his plan, he could persuade himself to suppress.

'For his labours he claims no credit beyond what may be due to the strictest fidelity in his narrative. It was not a romance that he had to give to the world; nor has he gone out of the track that actual circumstances prepared for him, to furnish food for sickly minds, by fictitious relations of adventures that never happened, but which are by a certain description of readers perused with avidity, and not unfrequently considered as the only passages deserving of notice.' P. vii.

'Occurrences such as he has had to relate are not often presented to the public; they do not, indeed, often happen. It is not, perhaps, once in a century that colonies are established in the most remote parts of the habitable globe; and it is seldom that men are found existing perfectly in a state of nature. When such circumstances do occur, curiosity, and still more laudable sentiments, must be excited. The gratification even of curiosity alone might have formed a sufficient apology for the author; but he has seen too much of virtue even among the vicious to be indifferent to the sufferings, or backward in promoting the felicities of human nature.' P. ix.

Mr. Collins has endeavoured to join the accuracy of the journalist with the ease of the historian, and has, on the whole, succeeded in rendering his work entertaining and interesting. The larger plates exhibit views of the country, and representations of some of the customs of the natives. The views are not strikingly characteristic; but this may be the fault of the country rather than of the artist; for it may have no peculiar features. Some of the vignettes have merit; but others, and also several of the larger prints, are badly executed.

Of the advantages which may be derived from the colony, we have not professed very high expectations. We shall not, however, conceal the views of Mr. Collins on this subject. May his wishes be realised!

'With respect to the resources of the settlement, there can be little doubt, that at this moment it is able to support itself in the article of grain; and the wild stock of cattle to the westward of the Nepean will soon render it independent on this country in the article of animal food. As to its utility, beside the circumstance of its freeing the mother country from the depraved branches of her offspring, in some instances reforming their dispositions, and in all cases rendering their labour and talents conducive to the public good, it may prove a valuable nursery to our East India possessions for soldiers and seamen.

'If, beside all this, a whale fishery should be established, another great benefit may accrue to the parent country from the coast of New South Wales.

'The island, moreover, abounds with fine timber in every respect adapted to the purposes of ship-building: iron too it possesses in abundance. Coal has been found there, and some veins of copper; and however inconsiderable the quantity of these articles that has been hitherto found, yet the proof of their existence will naturally lead to farther research, and most probably terminate in complete success.

'The flax plant grows spontaneously, and may, with the assistance of proper implements and other necessaries, be turned to very profitable account.

'The climate is for the most part temperate and healthy; cattle are prolific; and fruits and culinary vegetables thrive with almost a tropical luxuriance.' P. ix.

The History of Devonshire. In three Volumes. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele, &c. Vol. I. Folio 2l. 2s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1797.

HAVING already mentioned the inverted order of this publication, we proceed to consider the first volume, or rather that part of it which has appeared. We have waited for its completion, and for the plates designed to accompany it; but longer delay would be improper.

When, in our former article, we were induced to inquire into the qualifications requisite for a provincial historian, with a view of accounting for the frequent failures which we had witnessed, the literary spectres which had gleamed before our eyes and vanished, we were not aware that we should so soon have proceeded, in the clerical phrase, to the application. We were little pleased with Mr. Polwhele's antiquarian opinions, delivered in his 'Historical Views,' or with his arrangement in the chorographical part of the present work: but we

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* See our XXIId Volume, New Arr. p. 378.

knew that authors of respectability had occasionally deviated into error and absurdity. To complete our disgust, however, a philosophical sketch remained, exhibiting great confidence and self-conceit without the necessary knowledge of the subject.

After a general description of Devonshire, we find a long chapter on the air and weather of that county; but it seems to be rather a list of storms with their effects, than a philosophical account of facts. Perhaps, indeed, barometers and thermometers are not generally known in Devonshire, as Mr. Polwhele supposes that 'the doctrine of conductors may never have been promulgated at South-Molton.' Those instruments are mentioned twice only; and, in one instance, they were sent, it is expressly said, by Dr. Blagden and Mr. Cavendish.

Springs, rivers, harbours, and the sea, form the subjects of the third chapter. The springs are not important in a medicinal view, as they seem in general to be only slight chalybeates. The rivers are traced from their sources to the sea, with a sketch of the country through which they flow. The descriptions are sufficiently clear, though not very interesting; but the philosophy baffles the powers of analysis. The general opinion, respecting the origin of springs and rivers, is rejected, because the heads of the Tamar and the Torridge are on a 'pretty level summit *of a very high common*, where there are no rocks or crannies for the vapour or dews to *gleet down by*, nor any mountains or caverns above it, to collect a body of water.' This jargon is only equaled by another remark: 'The river Exe rises in such *high ground*, that it must surely derive its origin from the *subterraneous abyss*.' The opinion, indeed, is said to be that of an other individual; but it is quoted without any marks of dissent. This person seems to adopt the idea of some moderns, that springs are derived from the sea, acting as an hydraulic machine, and pressing the water, through natural siphons, to the highest mountains; an opinion which may be confuted by argument or be overwhelmed by ridicule. As the rivers here mentioned rise confessedly on high grounds, these elevated spots must have sides; and this is all that Dr. Halley's hypothesis requires. If the sea, on the other hand, by its weight can force water through the natural siphons, what cause can produce springs of the best water at considerable depths of the ocean?

'In regard to the tides, I shall not enter into any particulars; though I must make one general observation on their ebbing and flowing. The cause of this is supposed to be the moon—a theory, which, so far as it relates to spring and neap-tides, is beautiful and satisfactory. But I think it deficient on many considerations, as to the daily tides. If the flux and reflux were wholly influenced by the moon, why does not the moon affect the great fresh water lakes

in America? That tides do not arise from the influence of the moon, but are caused by polar inundations, is a much more probable doctrine.' Vol. i. p. 33.

Here we may observe, that the moon is only the cause of the regularly returning tides, and not the only cause of spring and neap tides. The want of tides in the American lakes has been often explained; and the fanciful system of St. Pierre, at which every philosopher smiles, will not, if admitted, explain the daily flow and ebb. The cause of tides is undoubtedly the concurrent or opposite action of the sun and moon; and one of the latest opponents of this doctrine is obliged to confess the force of the leading arguments, though willing to transfer the action to the atmosphere, and to consider the flow and ebb of the sea as a secondary effect.—Some confusion occurs with respect to the diminution of rivers. Woods, says Mr. Polwhele, lessen evaporation; and, as countries in general were once wooded, the evaporation must be less. Does he think that water which has evaporated is lost? Does he not know, that it descends again in rain? If his system should be admitted, it would contradict his wise theory of the source of rivers; for, while the sea continues of sufficient depth, enough of water must be supplied to the springs to compensate the evaporation.

What the historian has remarked concerning the change of course in many rivers is curious, and, if correct, is of local importance; but it seems to have escaped him, that all the circumstances mentioned cannot have arisen from this change. Rivers, in their former state, must have been more expanded and less deep. When the neighbouring marshes are drained, their beds are proportionally narrower.

The fourth chapter is introduced in the following manner: 'a view of the country; strata next the surface; disposition of the strata; native and extraneous fossils; geological reflections, deluges, volcanos, earthquakes.' It would be difficult to give any general character of this confused chapter. A piece of ore, not of a very rich kind, seems to be a proper type of it; for we observe the splendor of a precious metal, but, on close examination, perceive it to be mundic; we find much useless earth and much matter which debase the value of the ore, while the proportion of the real metal is small and is obtained with difficulty. We do not consider, as a good mineralogist, an author who affirms, that moorstone, whinstone, and basaltes, are species of lava; who gives three different descriptions of tufa, either in the text or notes, and allows only the name of granite to the compound stone, in which the three component parts are distinctly visible. The notes indeed are sometimes amplifications, sometimes con-

traditions, of the text: yet, in both, we occasionally find descriptions appropriate and clear.

The leading features of the soil of this county seem to be the red loam and the granite, though, in many parts, lime-stone and clay abound: sometimes sand rises through a considerable space. The lime-stone country contains many varieties of marble: our author mentions twenty-four sorts; but he might, with truth, have greatly increased the number. He tells us, with some marks of contempt, that several of these are spars. But he ought to have known that the most beautifully veined marbles, as they are called, are really spars.

Coal, it is said, is not found in Devonshire; which affords culm only, if we except the Bovey coal. Mr. Hill, of Hennock, whose communications we soon learn to value, informs us, that the strata of this substance extend nine miles to the west of the potters' clay, and sometimes run through it, seeming to follow the valley that terminates in Torbay.

'1. Though the substance and quality of the Bovey coal, in its several strata, be much alike, and it be all, indiscriminately, used for the same purposes; yet there is some difference in the color, form, and texture of the several veins. The exterior parts, which lie nearest to the clay, have a greater mixture of earth, and are generally of a dark brown, or chocolate color: some of them appear like a mass of coal and earth mixed. Others have a laminous texture; but the laminæ run in such oblique, wavy, and undulatory forms, that they bear a strong resemblance to the roots of trees. There are other veins of this coal, which lie more in the centre of the strata, and abound most in the lowest and thickest bed, the substance of which is more compact and solid. These are as black, and almost as heavy as pit-coal. They do not so easily divide into laminæ, and seem to be more strongly impregnated with bitumen. They are distinguished by the name of stone-coal, and the fire of them is more strong and lasting than that of other veins. But the most curious vein in these strata, is that which they call the wood-coal. It is sometimes of a chocolate color, and sometimes of a shining black. The former sort seems to be less impregnated with bitumen, is not so solid and heavy as the latter, and has more the appearance of wood. It lies in strait and even veins, and is frequently dug in pieces of three or four feet long, and with proper care might be taken out of a much greater length. 2. Other pieces of the same kind are found lying upon them, in all directions, but without the least intermixture of earth, or any other interstices, except some small crevices by which the pieces are divided from each other, in all directions. When it is first dug and moist, the thin pieces of it will bend like horn, but when dry, it loses its elasticity, and becomes short and crisp. At all times it is easily separated into very thin laminæ or splinters, especially if it lie any time, exposed to the heat of the sun, which, like the fire, makes it crackle,

ſeparate, and fall to pieces. The texture of this foſſil conſiſts of a number of laminæ, or very thin plates, lying upon each other horizontally, in which ſmall protuberances ſometimes appear like the knots of trees; but they are only mineral nuclei which occaſion this interruption in the courſe of the laminæ; and pieces of ſpar have been ſometimes found i the middle of this wood-coal. Though the texture of this coal is laminated, yet it does not appear to have any of thoſe fibrous interſections, which are obſerved in the grain of all wood. This coal eaſily breaks tranſverſely; and the ſeparated parts, inſtead of being rugged and uneven, are generally ſmooth and ſhining, in which even the courſe of the laminæ is hardly diſcernible. 3. The fire made by this coal is more or leſs ſtrong and laſting, according to its different veins. Thoſe which lie neareſt to the clay, having a greater mixture of earth, burn heavily, and leave a large quantity of browniſh aſhes. That which they call the wood-coal, is ſaid to make as ſtrong a fire as oaken billets, eſpecially if it be ſet on edge, ſo that the fire, as it aſcends, may inſinuate itſelf between and ſeparate the laminæ. But the heat of the ſtone-coal is accounted the ſtrongeſt, though not ſufficiently intenſe for the mines. It is apparently more ſolid and heavy, and more ſtrongly impregnated with bitumen: when this coal it put into the fire, it crackles and ſeparates into laminæ, as the cannel-coal or candle-coal does into irregular pieces, burns for ſome time with a heavy flame, becomes red hot, and gradually conſumes to light white aſhes. Though the tranſverſe crevices made in it by the fire, give it the external appearance of a wooden brand; yet, if quenched when red-hot, the unconſumed part does not look like charcoal, but ſeems to be almoſt as ſmooth and ſolid, as when firſt put into the fire. The thick heavy ſmoke which ariſes from this coal, when burnt, is very fetid and diſagreeable; entirely different from that aromatic ſcent of the bituminous loam which is found adhering to it, but much reſembling that of the aſphaltum or bitumen of the Dead ſea. The whole neighbourhood is infected with the ſtench which is wafted by the wind to the diſtance of three or four miles. When burnt in a chimney, the offenſiveneſs is leſſened by the draught; and it is found by thoſe, who live continually in the ſmoke of it, not to be unwholeſome: nor is it in the leaſt prejudicial to the eyes, like the ſmoke of wood. The moſt ſhining and ſolid pieces of this coal have not the leaſt degree of electrical attraction.' Vol. i. p. 66.

We have ſelected this paſſage as containing an accurate and comprehenſive account of a remarkable foſſil, which lately attracted our attention, in our ſurvey of Mr. Maton's publication. The ſmell is ſaid, in a note, to ariſe from its being burned in a wet ſtate; and, as it is deſcribed to be hepatic, we believe the remark to be well-founded; for the ſulphur muſt decompoſe the water.

Among the metals found in Devonſhire, tin is of moſt fre-

quent occurrence. Silver is extracted, it is ſaid, in a conſiderable proportion from the lead ores: copper and lead are obtained in moderate quantities; but there are no very rich ores of iron. The moſt valuable ſemi-metal is manganeſe. Load-ſtones are here found; but their power does not ſeem to be conſiderable. Antimony and cobalt are alſo furniſhed by this county; but the ores are not rich.

Among extraneous foſſils we find various petrified ſhells and echini. It is abſurd to claſs, under this head, a diſcovery in other reſpects curious, viz. a large quantity of a fat ſubſtance, evidently the *debris* of numerous hogs. They had become that fatty concrete, reſembling ſperma-ceti, into which animal ſubſtances after ſome time degenerate. It was found on a hill, buried more than twelve feet; and trees of no moderate age and growth had been removed from the place, for the purpoſe of excavating a pond. Some convulſion of the earth, in a remote period, had probably overwhelmed the animals.

Marks of deluges Mr. Polwhele finds in various parts of this county. Black-down and Haldon have, he thinks, been raiſed from water by ſome *volcanic* cauſe. Indeed, he ſees volcanos on numerous occaſions; and this is not ſurpriſing, when red loam *, whin-ſtone, and granite, are, in his opinion, volcanic ſubſtances. Even marble, when perforatedby animals or irregularly excavated by aërial acid, had almoſt been conſidered as belonging to the ſame claſs. From better authority than that of this writer, we think that volcanos have been frequent in Devonſhire; but the traces do not extend far without marked interruptions. The earthquakes of this county have been few, and not deſtructive. In a note on a paſſage from 'MS. Annals of Exeter,' a work of no authority, as its ſource is unknown, it is ſaid, 'There might have been an earthquake; but the ſea could not have ceaſed from ebbing and flowing, for three months.' Not (we may aſk) in a ſevere winter, when the polar ice could not thaw?

The fifth chapter treats of the indigenous plants of Devonſhire. We will quote the abſtract.

'If we review this catalogue for a moment, we may obſerve, that among the herbaceous plants and ſhrubs, the plants which are moſt remarkable for their plenty in almoſt every part of Devon, though ſcarce in many counties of England, are the fox-glove, the ivy-leaved bell-flower, the viſcous bartſia, the ſweet-gale; that among thoſe which are rare in Devon, though common in many counties

* The great argument for conſidering red loam as a volcanic ſubſtance, is, that lava degenerates into an earth of this kind; but there is no neceſſity for ſuppoſing it to be previouſly fuſed, as the ſchiſt which forms the lava is equally argillaceous.

of England, are the common cowſlip, the common eryngo, the common winter-green, the bee-orchis; that, among thoſe which are extremely rare in England, are Venus's navelwort, the autumnal ſquill, the flowering-ruſh, yellow-flowered wood-ſorrel; that among thoſe which grow abundantly in one or in ſeveral places in Devon, though ſcarce plants, are the round-headed club-ruſh, the ſmall Plymouth ruſh-graſs ſmall purple ſea-ſpurge, the yellow-horned poppy, the balm-leaved archangel, the Corniſh ſibthorpia; and that among thoſe which grow in one or two places, though not plentifully, are the panic millet-graſs, the ſea-bugloſs cowſlip, ſoapwort, and the ſmall-flowered mallow. Of our trees, the moſt conſpicuous in this county ſeem to be the oak and the elm—the leaſt obvious, the beech and the aſh, in the native woods of Devonſhire.' Vol. i. p. 98.

In this part of the volume, we have a correct account of ſome trees, particularly oaks and beeches; and arguments are adduced to prove, that the eſculus was really the oak, and not the horſe cheſnut, as ſome reſpectable authors have ſuppoſed. This chapter furniſhes, however, a ſubject for reprehenſion, in the ridicule and contempt with which Mr. Polwhele's correſpondents are treated. One gentleman's remarks are profeſſedly quoted to *amuſe* the reader; yet to him the author is indebted in many pages of the volume. Others are treated with little more ceremony. We will extract the notes of a whole page, to avoid the ſuſpicion of culling paſſages.

"This plant (ranunculus flammula) is *thought* to occaſion the rot in ſheep." C. Is *thought*—has it been proved to cauſe the rot? It is equally the cauſe, I ſuppoſe, with the ſundew mentioned before. Both plants, it is *thought* by me, are falſely accuſed. Do ſheep eat either of them?'

'Its leaves (thoſe of the ranunculus ſceleratus) appear early in the ſpring, and by their freſhneſs tempt cattle to eat them. It generates many diſorders both in cows and oxen. It kills men; and they die laughing—whence it is called apium riſus, riſus ſardonicus—being the ſardonia herba of Dioſcorides. Cr. It is an acrid plant, and therefore may not agree with cattle ſhould they chance to eat it. It may kill men, for aught I know; but C. has, I believe, no authority for ſaying ſo, but old ſaws. Having turned to James's Diſpenſatory, I have found, I think, his authority for the remainder. "It is called, by many, ſcelerata herba; by others, apium riſus, which made Guilandinus think it was the apiaſtrum of Pliny, which Dioſcorides calls ſardonia." C. had heard of the riſus ſardonicus, the convulſive laugh ſo called, and gives it here as a ſynonyme of the plant.'

'It (helleborus fœtidus) grows wild in many orchards of the Southams, where it is univerſally the old woman's medicine for

worms—which is aſtoniſhing, when we conſider the number of children that it has been known to kill. C.—Bearsfoot is a ſafe medicine, given in a proper manner. In unſkilful hands it may, and has I believe, killed many children: but its uſe in worm caſes by old women, is not confined to the Southams.

"It' (origanum vulgare) 'is not only a pleaſant beverage, but excellent in medicine. I knew a woman cured of an epilepſy by drinking about ſix ounces of a ſtrong infuſion of it twice a day, inſtead of bohea tea." Theſe ſolitary facts of Mr. C's. are not convincing. That the woman's epilepſy left her I have no doubt; but was ſhe cured by the marjoram? Was the former perſon cured by the tormentil? Epileptic fits ſometimes go off of themſelves. Old intermittents with diarrhœa, wear themſelves out.' Vol. i. p. 90.

Devonſhire can boaſt of the eagle, which is ſometimes found in its alpine regions; and a wanderer of this tribe has been killed on its coaſts. The merlin, white and pied rooks, the Royſton crow (which feeds on the cockle, and obtains its prey by daſhing it on the rocks, and thus breaking its ſhell), the wheat-ear, the croſsbill, and the goldfinch, are among the land-birds. On the migration of the ſwallow, there is a long unſatisfactory note. With regard to water-fowl, we may mention that a few herons breed in Devonſhire; that the common bittern is rare, and does not breed in the county; that the grey plover is uncommon; and that ſwans, the brent and wild gooſe, and other web-footed fowl, viſit the ſouthern coaſt only in ſevere winters.

The river fiſh of Devonſhire are not repreſented as highly delicate; but the common trout, and a particular ſpecies of red trout, are conſidered in their ſeaſon as tolerably good. The currents of the rivers are, in general, too rapid for ſome other kinds of fiſh, which are valued in different parts of England. The ſalmon which repair to the Exe and other rivers merely for the purpoſe of ſpawning, deſerve particular commendation: when they arrive from the ſea, they are very luxurious food. Among ſea fiſh, the porpoiſe, the ſting-ray, and the electric ray, are the more uncommon and injurious. Among the luxuries of the table, the inhabitants of the coaſt boaſt of the turbot, the dory, the ſole, the pilchard, the whiting, and the red mullet. The ſalmon, as a ſea fiſh, and in its beſt ſtate, is covered with lice; and lobſters alſo have their gills filled with ſmall oblong red animals, when they are in perfection. Among the cartilaginous fiſh, is the lamprey, which is conſidered as a great dainty: the bloodleſs fiſh of the ſea are the lobſter, the crab, the prawn, and the ſhrimp: the teſtaceous fiſh are, the oyſter, the ſcallop, the cockle, &c. A curious fact reſpecting the oyſter is thus ſtated:

'The oyster has the power of closing the two parts of its shell with considerable force by means of a strong muscle at the hinge. This circumstance in its natural history, may be illustrated by a curious incident which happened about forty years since, at Ashburton, at the house of Mrs. Aldridge, known by the name of the New Inn. "In an underground cellar a dish of Wembury oysters was laid by way of coolness: at the time the tide flows, it is well known oysters open their shells to admit the waters and take their food: at this period a large oyster had expanded his jaws, and at the same instant two mice, searching for prey, pounced at once on the victim, and seized it with their teeth: the oyster, shrinking at the wound, closed her shell, collapsing with such force as to crush the marauders to death. The oyster, with the two mice dangling from its shell, was for a long time exhibited as a curiosity by the landlady to her guests. An incident of so uncommon a nature hath been generally considered as unique. With regard to the two mice, it probably may be so, and its oddness is thereby considerably heightened. As to the singularity, however, of the event, I shall produce an apposite instance epigrammatically recorded in the Greek anthology:

Παμφαγος ἑρπυστης κατὰ δωματα λυχνοβορος μυς,
Οστρεον αθρησας χειλεσι πεπταμενον,
Πωγεονος διεροιο νοθην ωδαξατο σαρκα.
Αυτικα δ'οστρακοεις επλαταγησε δομος,
'Ηρμοσθη δ'οδυναισιν. 'Ο δ', εν κλειθροισιν αφυκτοις
Ληφθεις, αυτοφονον ποτμον επεσπασατο.

'Which I have thus paraphrased:

'Crept from his hole, a taper-eating mouse,
Who wont to range and nibble thro' the house;
One night was led by his nose for prey,
Where, in the cellar, oysters lay!
'One from the rest, he instant spy'd,
With gaping jaws extended wide,
And, urg'd by hunger—nought deterr'd
To seize th' amphibious creature's beard;
When, sudden on his startled ear,
Burst sounds, that more than mouse might scare;
The portals close—and with portending knell,
Include the caitiff in the crushing shell.
'Ah! luckless thief! unheard thy wond'rous doom,
Spontaneous thus, to meet a living tomb!
There, where he seiz'd the dread collapsing prize,
There, with the victim rent, the victor dies!"

'Carew, in his Survey of Cornwall, tells of an oyster that closed its shell on trhee mice. "Not long since, says Carew, an oyster, by his sudden shutting, caught, in his own defence, three young mice by the heads, and so trebled the valor of the cleft block, which griped Milo by the hands." I had imagined, on hearing a vague

account of the Ashburton incident, that the story was stolen from Carew, and thus transferred to Ashburton; but Mr. Tripe informs me, that he himself saw the mice in the situation I have described. The oyster had closed on both their heads.' Vol. i. p. 122.

The reptiles of Devonshire are few, and by no means dangerous. The quadrupeds are not uncommon. A kind of wild horse is found on Exmoor, and in some other places: our author's description of this animal we will transcribe.

'Of our hoofed quadrupeds, the horse has the first claim to regard. The activity and good discipline of the British horses struck terror into Cæsar's legions. But to trace out this species is now impossible: those which exist among the indigenæ of Great-Britain, such as the little horses of Devon, Cornwall, and Wales, the hobbies of Ireland, and the shelties of Scotland, though well adapted to the uses of these countries, could never have been equal to the work of war. The horses of Exmoor, and some few of the same breed, on the more extensive downs and moors of Devon, have certainly all the appearance of being indigenous; and are admirably well adapted to the purposes for which they are employed: they are very hardy, and endure great fatigue. Though in general about eleven hands high, and seldom exceeding twelve, they carry heavy burthens up and down precipices with a wonderful agility—a task which larger horses would be incapable of performing. A number of these Exmoor horses are driven every year to a particular spot on the moor, where they are beat for some time, in order to subdue their wildness; (when they are caught, and sold sometimes in lots,) at other times singly—yielding from twenty shillings to twelve guineas each. Few, however, within the last ten years, have brought less than three pounds a horse. A small breed of horses on the Holsworthy moors, and on the downs about Moreton-hamstead, differs little from the Exmoor horses. The horses in general use among the farmers, are a mixture of the indigenous and the German breed. In the south-east parts of Devon, the farmers use horses of a considerable size. To particularise the different sorts of horses used in Devon for the various purposes of the farm, as cart or coach horses, as hunters or as racers, or to endeavour to form a calculation of the numbers so employed, would be idle; since Devonshire, in this respect, differs not from the rest of the island: this, indeed, would be foreign to the subject.' Vol. i. p. 130.

The oxen and sheep of Devonshire have been often noticed by agricultural authors; but, from the historian of the county, we expected some farther account of the latter, and of their fleeces, if indeed, as we have heard, the principal manufacture of Devon be connected with their peculiar qualities. In this respect, however, we may have been misinformed.

(To be continued.)

Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester. Vol. V. Part I. 8*vo.* 6s *Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

WE always return with pleasure to the successive volumes of the transactions of this respectable society; and, in the part which now appears *, we have not been disappointed in our hopes of entertainment and instruction.

'Cursory Remarks, Moral and Political, on Party-Prejudice. By Samuel Argent Bardsley, M. D.'

Prejudice, that bias of the mind, often invincible, in favour of opinions or of persons, has never been properly examined. It is frequently the incurable curvature of the bow in consequence of being too long or too violently bent: it is sometimes an obliquity of mind, which irresistibly favours one direction, from an original organisation or from frequent or continued impressions. Like the vortex, it carries every opinion, which approaches its exterior circle, to the gulph. *Party* prejudice, the subject of the present essay, is still more unaccountable. The interest is often remote, the object unperceived, and the connection inconsiderable; yet the violence is proportioned to those circumstances which would naturally produce indifference. Temper and interest have, we know, occasionally suffered in the shock; and such is the effect of this species of prejudice on the mind, that honesty and honour have often unconsciously been buried in the same ruin. The writer has traced the history of party from the best periods of Rome to the war of the league. We wish that he had entered more particularly into the subject; and we heartily join with him in recommending a careful guard against prejudices in the education of youth, but without leading the pupil to the confines of scepticism.

'Extraordinary Facts relating to the Vision of Colours: with Observations. By Mr. John Dalton.'

In this case, the individual can distinguish white, yellow, and green; but blue, purple, pink, and crimson, are less clearly appropriated by him, and are indistinctly referred to blue. In the prismatic spectrum, he in general sees only two colours, yellow and blue; but he sometimes can perceive purple. His yellow comprehends the yellow, red, orange, and green of others: the effect of red is that of a duller blue: pink, by candle light, is yellow and red. In this irregularity of vision, Mr. Dalton's brother resembles him; and he has collected similar anomalies in the optics of others. The 'characteristic facts' we shall select in his own words.

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* For a review of the immediately preceding part, see our XIXth Vol. New Arr. p. 250.

'1. In the solar spectrum three colours appear, yellow, blue, and purple. The two former make a contrast; the two latter seem to differ more in degree than in kind.

'2. Pink appears, by day-light, to be sky-blue a little faded; by candle-light it assumes an orange or yellowish appearance, which forms a strong contrast to blue.

'3. Crimson appears a muddy blue by day; and crimson woollen yarn is much the same as dark blue.

'4. Red and scarlet have a more vivid and flaming appearance by candle-light than by day-light.

'5. There is not much difference in colour between a stick of red sealing wax and grass, by day.

'6. Dark green woollen cloth seems a muddy red, much darker than grass, and of a very different colour.

'7. The colour of a florid complexion is dusky blue.

'8. Coats, gowns, &c. appear to us frequently to be badly matched with linings, when others say they are not. On the other hand, we should match crimsoms with claret or mud; pinks with light blues; browns with reds; and drabs with greens.

'9. In all points where we differ from other persons, the difference is much less by candle-light than by day-light. P. 40.

These facts are explained by a circumstance which is far from being improbable, viz. the supposition, that one of the humours, probably the vitreous humour, of his eye, is a blue medium.

'From the whole of this paper it is evident, that our eyes admit blue rays in greater proportion than those of other people; therefore when any kind of light is less abundant in blue, as is the case with candle-light compared to day-light, our eyes serve in some degree to temper that light, so as to reduce it nearly to the common standard. This seems to be the reason why colours appear to us by candle-light, almost as they do to others by day-light.

'I shall conclude this paper by observing, that it appears to me extremely probable, that the sun's light and candle-light, or that which we commonly obtain from combustion, are originally constituted alike; and that the earth's atmosphere is properly a blue fluid, and modifies the sun's light so as to occasion the commonly perceived difference.' P. 45.

'An Enquiry into the Name of the Founder of Huln Abbey, Northumberland, the first in England of the Order of Carmelites: with Remarks on Dr. Ferriar's Account of the Monument in the Church of that Monastery. By Robert Uvedale, B. A. of Trinity College, Cambridge; Corresponding Member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.'

This is a reply to Dr. Ferriar's paper, which appeared in the third volume of the Memoirs *.

'On the Variety of Voices. By Mr. John Gough. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The variety of voices is well known: it does not proceed, however, from any variety in a single tone or pulse of air, as it then would only differ in loudness and acuteness. Mr. Gough considers every natural ordinary tone as consisting of *intervals of sound*—that is, a quantity of any kind, terminated by a more grave or a more acute sound: but, in the human voice, and in the tones of sonorous bodies, these intervals are too small to have their terminating sounds accurately distinguished, though they are sufficiently large to produce distinct sensations, corresponding to their relative affections. This principle is satisfactorily supported.

'On the Benefits and Duties resulting from the Institution of Societies for the Advancement of Literature and Philosophy. By the Reverend Thomas Gisborne, M. A. Communicated by Dr. Percival.'

This is a pleasing and elegant essay on the advantages of literary societies. From the obliquity of the human mind, persons who thus associate are frequently considered with jealousy, as assuming, in their separation from those with whom they are otherwise connected, a character of superiority, which is with reluctance allowed.

'On an Universal Character; in a Letter from James Anderson, LL. D. F. R. S. &c.'

After an introduction, too extensive, and sometimes irrelevant, Dr. Anderson explains his system, which rests on the usual idea of arithmetical figures, speaking to the mind by signs of ideas, rather than words. He has made some efforts to reduce it to practice; but we cannot commend it for simplicity.

'The Inverse Method of Central Forces,' communicated by Dr. Holme, is an addition to the paper on the same subject, given in the fourth volume.

'Observations on Iron and Steel. By Joseph Collier.'

We find nothing very interesting in this article.

'Remarks on Dr. Priestley's Experiments and Observations relating to the Analysis of Atmospherical Air, and his Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston and the Decomposition of Water. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.'

Our author is a strong advocate for the new chemical system; and he examines, with impartiality and precision, Dr. Priestley's last effort in favour of phlogiston. He finds the arguments inconclusive, and the supposed results untenable.

* See our 1st Vol. New Arr. p. 257.

'An Account of three Different Kinds of Timber Trees, which are likely to prove a great Acquiſition to this Kingdom, both in Point of Profit and as Trees for Ornament and Shade. By Charles White, Eſq. F. R. S.'

The three trees, recommended, are the black American birch with broad leaves, the Athenian poplar, and the iron oak with prickly cups. The firſt ſeems to be a tree of much promiſe.

'The broad-leaved American black birch, betula nigra, Linn. Spec. Plant. 1394, is deſcribed by Mr. Aiton in his Hortus Kewenſis: B. foliis rhombeo ovatis, duplicato-ſerratis, acutis, ſubtus pubeſcentibus, baſi integris; ſtrobilorum ſquamis villoſis; laciniis linearibus, æqualibus. It is a native of Virginia and Canada, and was firſt introduced into England (where it grows in the greateſt luxuriancy and perfects its ſeeds) by Peter Collinſon, eſq. in the year 1736. There is no doubt, therefore, that it will ſoon become very plentiful and cheap. It is very deſirable in pleaſure grounds, as it is the firſt foreſt tree in the ſpring which preſents us with its leaves: theſe are of a light and lively green. Its bark, which is white, makes, at all times, a beautiful variety when intermixed with other trees. It is ſaid to be the moſt uſeful timber tree in North America, for building both of houſes and boats, and will grow faſt in any ſoil or ſituation, whether wet or dry.

'Miller, ſpeaking of trees of this deſcription, ſays, "they may be propagated by ſeeds, in the ſame manner as the common birch tree, and are equally hardy. Some of the trees now begin to produce their catkins in England, ſo that we may hope to have plenty of their ſeeds of our own growth, for at preſent we are ſupplied with them from America. As theſe grow more vigorouſly than the common ſort, and thrive on the moſt barren ground, they may be cultivated to great advantage in England, for their wood is much eſteemed in Canada, where the trees grow to a large ſize; and they are, by no means, an unſightly tree in parks, for their ſtems are ſtraight, the bark ſmooth, and their leaves are much larger than thoſe of the common birch, ſo may be planted in ſuch places where few other trees will thrive."

'Mr. Hanbury ſays, "the black Virginian birch, being of foreign growth, is propagated for wilderneſs and ornamental plantations; but, as it begins now to become pretty common, it is to be hoped it will ſoon make a figure among our foreſt trees, it being equally hardy with our common birch, and will arrive at a much greater magnitude. This ſpecies will grow to be upwards of ſixty feet in height. The branches are ſpotted, and more ſparingly ſet on the trees than the common ſorts. The leaves are broader, grow on long foot ſtalks, and add a dignity to the appearance of the tree; and as it is naturally of upright and ſwift growth, and arrives at ſo great a magnitude in a few years, prudence will direct us to let it

have a ſhare among our foreſt trees, to plant them for ſtandards in open places, as well as to let them join with other trees of their own growth, in plantations more immediately deſigned for relaxation and pleaſure." I planted one of theſe trees nineteen years ago, and it is now forty-five feet ſix inches in height, and three feet ſeven inches in the girth.' Vol. v. p. 163.

The ſecond is the populus Græca. Its ſtem is upright; the branches are well diſpoſed; and the bark is ſmooth and ſilvery. Its leaves are very early in their appearance, and are never injured by inſects, or ſhriveled by blights. When grafted, it grows ſlowly, and muſt be propagated by ſuckers or layers.—The third ſeems to be a variety of the quercus cerris, perhaps the quercus frondoſa of Aiton. It appears to be a rapid grower, and is, in other reſpects, an advantageous tree to the planter.

'An Analyſis of the Waters of two Mineral Springs at Lemington Priors, near Warwick; including Experiments tending to elucidate the Origin of the Muriatic Acid. By William Lambe, M. A. late fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The great object of Mr. Lambe, in this paper, is the analyſis of the new ſprings at Lemington Priors, about two miles eaſt of Warwick. Theſe ſprings were diſcovered in 1790, by boring to the depth of forty-two feet. The water diſſolves metallic ſubſtances, and contains ſome proportions of muriat of iron and manganeſe. On theſe ſalts, much of the difficulty, ariſing in this inquiry, reſts. The metals ſeem rather to be diſſolved in the water by hepatic gas than by any acid; yet the appearances ſo nearly reſemble thoſe which would reſult from the muriat of iron, that Mr. Lambe ſuppoſes muriatic acid to be generated in the proceſs. The fact, however, rather ſeems to be, that muriatic ſalts are united with the hepatiſed ſolutions, and not carefully ſeparated. The inquiry is rather conducted by ſynthetical approximations, than by fair analyſis.

The neutral ſalts of the new baths are a large proportion of muriat of ſoda, and a ſmaller quantity of ſulphat of ſoda, and ſulphat of lime. The muriat of magneſia is in a very ſmall proportion. The ſulphat of ſoda ſeems to be kept in ſolution, by ſalt of manganeſe; and this effect of compound ſolutions, a ſubject not ſufficiently examined, we would recommend to the attention of chemiſts.—The water of the old baths is not very different: its chief ſaline ingredient is muriat of ſoda.

'Some Account of the Perſian Cotton Tree. By Matthew Guthrie, M. D. F. R. S. &c. Communicated by Dr. Percival.'

This is a ſhort but intereſting and uſeful paper. The vegetable in queſtion was probably carried at an early period to America, where it was propagated ſo copiouſly, as to be taken for an indigenous plant of the new continent. It was conſidered as ſuch by Linnæus; but a Britiſh merchant has lately preſented a paper to the œconomical ſociety at Peterſburg, in which he aſſerts, that the European nations furniſhed their American colonies with cotton ſeed from Smyrna.

'The annual cotton is much cultivated in the northern or colder provinces of Perſia, bordering on the Caſpian ſea (as the perennial is in the ſouthern) and it is from thence that the ſeeds now ſent to Portugal have been obtained through the Bucharian Tartar merchants, and are the production of the goſſypium herbaceum of Linnæus, the goſſypium annuum of Pallas. It is ſown in Perſia from the end of March to the end of April, and reaped in September. This ſpecies requires a rich ſoil mixed with ſand; and, therefore, where the land is not rich enough, they manure it with cow or ſheep dung: although we are told, that when the plants are once raiſed above the ground any ſpecies of ſoil will anſwer. The ground is worked in the ſpring, and the ſeeds are planted at the diſtance of eight or ten inches from one another, whilſt care is taken to weed it to give air to the young plants. Dry ſummers give the beſt crop, as rain is more particularly hurtful when it falls in great quantities during the flowering and ripening of the cotton. It is gathered, as ſaid above, in September, care being always taken to collect a ſufficient quantity of ſeed for the next year. Laſtly, watering the young plants with a mixture of wood-aſhes and water, in certain ſituations, is ſometimes neceſſary to guard them from deſtructive worms.

'The Ruſſians have cultivated the ſame ſpecies of Perſian cotton in the government of Caucaſus, and rear enough of it to ſerve their own national manufactures, which are not as yet either numerous or conſiderable; but on the Terck, at the foot of the Caucaſus, where it is reared, they do not ſow till the middle of May, leſt a late ſpring-froſt, which is ſometimes felt in thoſe parts, ſhould deſtroy the hopes of the planter. With that one exception, the Ruſſians ſtrictly obſerve the Perſian mode of cultivation.

'There is a ſpecies of ſilky cotton much cultivated at preſent in Germany, which poſſibly may merit the attention of Portugal for their plantations in America. It is the aſclepias ſyriaca of Linnæus, and affords ſo fine a ſpecies of cotton (if I may ſo name it) that fabrics have been erected in Saxony where ſtuffs are made of it, which rival in luſtre, &c. the true animal ſilk. But this new vegetable ſilk has circumſtances attending it that ſeem to recommend its cultivation in ſome of the American colonies and iſlands. Firſt, becauſe it is originally the native of a hot climate, as Linnæus's ſpecific name indicates; and, of courſe, it is likely to be in its great-

eſt beauty and excellence in climates which approach neareſt to that of its native country. Secondly, becauſe its ſtalks afford a coarſe ſort of cloth well calculated to clothe negroes, whilſt from the pith of them paper is made.' P. 218.

A ſpecies, remarkable for its fineneſs, and called, from its original country, 'Siam cotton', is ſaid to be reared in the Antilles.

'Experiments and Obſervations on the Preparation and ſome remarkable Properties of the Oxygenated Muriat of Potaſh. By Thomas Hoyle, jun.'

With pleaſure we learn from Mr. Hoyle, that the oxygenated muriat of pot-aſh may be prepared at a rate much cheaper than the price now demanded for it by druggiſts. He deſcribes the mode of preparing the ſalt, which he found to explode, on friction, with phoſphorus, charcoal, ſulphur, mercury, arſenic, loaf ſugar, fixed and eſſential oils, ſpirit of turpentine, camphor, &c. It detonated very ſlightly with gum arabic, and not at all with Pruſſian blue, æther, or iron filings. It may not be uſeleſs to add, that this muriat, diſſolved in the oxygenated acid, is more effectual in deſtroying colours than any other ſubſtance.

'Experiments and Obſervations on Fermentation and the Diſtillation of Ardent Spirit. By Joſeph Collier.'

It appears from this paper, that the ſpirituous fermentation is beſt carried on in cloſe veſſels, while the acetous requires the acceſs of free air. The fermentation of ſaccharine ſubſtances is expedited by additional ferments, though ſome degree of fermentation will be excited by heat alone. The extrication of air in raiſing bread is a true fermentation, though not carried far enough to produce a vinous ſpirit.

'I may here obſerve on the ſubject of potatoes, that they never anſwered the expectation which I had formed from the account given by Dr. Anderſon. To procure five quarts of ſpirit from ſeventy pounds of potatoes appeared very extraordinary; but, from repeated experiments, I am thoroughly ſatisfied, that it is not poſſible either by the plan propoſed by Dr. Anderſon, or any other with which we are acquainted. The farina obtained from ſeventy pounds of potatoes does not exceed fourteen pounds, (a fact which I have proved by carefully collecting it) and good molaſſes, by a well regulated fermentation, will not form more than its bulk of ſpirit; from which it will appear very improbable that ten pints of ſpirit can be produced from the above quantity of farina.' P. 259.

In fermentation, in open veſſels, ſome of the matter unchanged is carried off, with the different gaſſes extricated in the proceſs. The admiſſion of different airs did not materially

increase the product; nor did any particular gas appear to deserve the preference. In malting, our author certainly carries the germination of his grain too far. His mode of distillation is undoubtedly an improvement of the common process; but we despair of rendering it intelligible in an abstract.

'Hints on the Establishment of an Universal Written Character. In a Letter to the Rev. Dr. John Kemp. By William Brown, M. D. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

We here find some 'hints which may contribute to render the formation of an universal character more easy, by establishing a principle on which persons, who may be induced to prosecute this important object, may proceed with a certainty of success.' As a philological disquisition, the essay has merit.

'On the Process of Bleaching with the Oxygenated Muriatic Acid; and a Description of a new Apparatus for bleaching Cloths with that Acid dissolved in Water, without the Addition of Alkali. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.'

In the employment of the oxygenated muriatic acid, its odour compelled the workmen to apply it in close vessels. In their process, the cloth was not uniformly impregnated. They then repressed the odour by an alkali, which, in Mr. Rupp's opinion, weakens the effect of the acid. He proposes that the alkali should be left out, and has described an apparatus in which the oxygenated acid may be equably applied, without any danger from the fumes. We find that this paper has occasioned a controversy, in which we can here take no part.

'Account of a remarkable Change of Colour in a Negro. By Miers Fisher. Extract of a Letter from Mr. James Pemberton to Mr. Thomas Wilkinson. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The hue of the person here mentioned, who thus ceased to be a *negro*, is said to be entirely that of a white man; an observation which is seemingly corrected by the remark, that the skin was like that of a freckly person, certainly not the usual colour of a healthy European.

The Nurse, a Poem. Translated from the Italian of Luigi Tansillo. By William Roscoe. 4to. 6s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

THE author of this poem, Mr. Roscoe informs us, was a native of Nola, who flourished in the sixteenth century. It was not, however, before the year 1767 that the present work was made public by professor Ranza, who discovered it in manuscript, together with the *Podere* of the same writer. Till this discovery Tansillo was better or rather more known,

'better had he remained unknown', as the author of the Vendemmiatore, an obscene poem, which, in 1559, was stigmatised by Pius IV. who ordered it to be registered in the Index Expurgatorius. It is remarkable that, though the Vendemmiatore was the only exceptionable piece by Tansillo, all his writings were included in the prohibition. Mortified at this rigor, he addressed an ode to the pope, asserting, that, though his poem was licentious, his life had not been so; remonstrating against the inclusion of his innocent productions in the sentence with the culpable piece; and declaring that he was employed in a poem upon the tears of St. Peter, whose merits, he trusted, would atone for his offence, and procure him deserved honour. In consequence of this ode, when the next edition of the Index Expurgatorius appeared, not only the innoxious poems, but the Vendemmiatore also, were omitted, as if the repentance of the poet had purified his poem!

The present work might, we think, have been shorter, and consequently better. The following extract will show with what view it was written.

'What fury, hostile to our common kind,
First led from nature's path the female mind,
Th' ingenuous sense by fashion's laws represt,
And to a babe denied its mother's breast?
What! could she, as her own existence dear,
Nine tedious months her tender burthen bear,
Yet when at length it smil'd upon the day,
To hireling hands its helpless frame convey?
—Whilst yet conceal'd in life's primæval folds,
Th' unconscious mass her proper body holds;
Whilst in her mind distracting fears arise,
Stranger to that which in her bosom lies;
Whilst led by ignorance, wild fancy apes
Uncouth distortions and perverted shapes;
Yet then securely rests the promis'd brood,
Screen'd by her cares and nurtur'd by her blood.
But when reliev'd from danger and alarms,
The perfect offspring leaps into her arms,
Turns to a mother's face its asking eyes,
And begs for pity by its tender cries;
Then, whilst young life its opening powers expands,
And the meek infant spreads its searching hands,
Scents the pure milk-drops as they flow distill,
And thence anticipates the plenteous rill,
From her first grasp the smiling babe she flings,
Whilst pride and folly seal the gushing springs;
Hopeful that pity can by her be shewn,
Who for another's offspring quits her own.

'Ah! ſure ye deem that nature gave in vain
Thoſe ſwelling orbs that life's warm ſtreams contain;
As the ſoft ſimper, or the dimple ſleek
Hangs on the lip, or wantons in the cheek;
Nor heed the duties that to theſe belong,
The dear nutrition of your helpleſs young.
—Why elſe, ere health's returning luſtre glows,
Check ye the milky fountain as it flows?
Turn to a ſtagnant maſs the circling flood,
And with diſeaſe contaminate the blood?
Whilſt ſcarcely one, however chaſte ſhe prove,
Faithful remains to nature and to love.' P. 5.

In one inſtance the zeal of Tanſillo leads him to an abſurd and extravagant aſſertion. This the tranſlator has noted. With this exception the enſuing paſſage is beautiful.

'O crime! with herbs and drugs of eſſence high,
The ſacred fountains of the breaſt to dry!
Pour back on nature's ſelf the balmy tide
Which nature's God for infancy ſupplied!
—Does horror ſhake us when the pregnant dame,
To ſpare her beauties, or to hide her ſhame,
Deſtroys, with impious rage and arts accurſt,
Her growing offſpring ere to life it burſt,
And can we bear, on every ſlight pretence,
The kindred guilt that marks this dread offence?
—As the green herb freſh from its earlieſt root,
Young life protrudes its yet uncertain ſhoot,
Or falls, unconſcious of the blighting ſtorm,
A dubious victim, and a ſhadowy form;
But ſhe who to her babe her breaſt denies,
The ſentient mind, the living man deſtroys;
Arreſts kind nature's liberal hand too ſoon,
And robs her helpleſs young of half the boon.
—'Tis his, not hers—the colour only chang'd,
Erewhile thro' all the throbbing veins it rang'd;
Pour'd thro' each artery its redundant tide,
And with rich ſtream incipient life ſupplied;
And when full time releas'd the impriſon'd young,
Up to the breaſts, a living river, ſprung.
'Doubt ye the laws by nature's God ordain'd,
Or that the callous young ſhould be ſuſtain'd
Upon the parent breaſt?—be thoſe your ſchools
Where nature triumphs, and where inſtinct rules.
No beaſt ſo fierce from Zembla's northern ſtrand,
To Ethiopia's barren realms of ſand,
But midſt her young her milky fountain ſhares,
With teats as numerous as the brood ſhe rears.

Two breasts ye boast for this kind end alone,
That your twin offspring each should have its own.
‘ Does no remorse, ye fair, your bosoms gnaw,
Rebellious to affection's primal law ?
Persist ye still, by her mild voice unaw'd,
False to yourselves, your offspring, and your God ?
Mark but your proper frame—what wond'rous art,
What fine arrangement rules in every part ;
As the blood rushes thro' each swelling vein,
The ruddy tide appropriate vessels strain ;
And whilst around the limpid current flows,
To shape and strength th' unconscious embryon grows,
But when 'tis born, then nature's secret force
Gives to the circling stream another course ;
The starting beverage meets the thirsty lip,
'Tis joy to yield it, and 'tis joy to sip.' P. 11.

From these extracts it will appear that the translation is, as was to be expected from Mr. Roscoe, correct and harmonious. In no instance have we observed that the version is inferior to the original. Of the subject of the poem the translator thus speaks.

‘ The hope of promoting in some degree the laudable object which the author himself had in view, if it did not lead him to undertake the translation, operated as a chief inducement to lay it before the public. That the character and manners of our countrymen, both in higher and lower life, afford but too much room for reform, is an assertion which may be made without incurring the imputation of moroseness ; but till we can decidedly point out those circumstances which give rise to this laxity, not to say depravity of manners of the present day, it will be to no purpose to adopt measures for their improvement. Of these causes the custom, still so prevalent, of committing the children of the richer and middle ranks of society to be brought up by the poor, is, in the opinion of the translator, one of the most efficacious, and like all other vicious institutions, its effects are injurious to all the parties who engage in it. The reason generally assigned by medical men for promoting a custom which has of late received their almost universal sanction, is, that the mode of living which now prevails in the higher ranks, is such, as renders it impossible for a woman to afford her infant those advantages which are indispensably necessary to its existence and support. But is it possible to conceive a severer satire against the female sex than this assertion implies ? Such it seems is the rage for pleasure and amusement, that it must be gratified even by the sacrifice of the most important duties of life, and by a practice, which if generally extended, would endanger the very existence of the human race. The assistance of a nurse is not then intended as a benefit to the child, but as a licence to the mother to

pursue her gratifications, without those restraints which the performance of her own proper and indispensable duties would impose upon her, and by the due exercise of which she would find her health and her affections equally improved.' P. xiii.

We have perused this poem with pleasure, yet not without a wish that the talents of Mr. Roscoe had been employed upon something more worthy of them. From the mines of Italian poetry England has profited little. Ariosto indeed and Tasso are known to the English reader in tame, prosaic, spiritless translations (for the version of the latter, by Fairfax, is unjustly neglected), fit only to amuse school-boys by the interest of the story, and bearing the same resemblance to their exquisite originals, as the mere model of a dead face to the countenance when kindled with life. The Inferno of Dante may be particularly mentioned as worthy of translation. If it should not appear advisable to render the whole of that wonderful and wild poem, Mr. Roscoe knows how to select with judgment.

We will not conclude without transcribing the sonnet prefixed to Mr. Roscoe's version.

SONNET. To Mrs. R.

' As thus in calm domestic leisure blest,
I wake to British notes th' Ausonian strings,
Be thine the strain; for what the poet sings
Has the chaste tenor of thy life exprest.
And whilst delighted, to thy willing breast,
With rosy lip thy smiling infant clings,
Pleased I reflect, that from those healthful springs
—Ah not by thee with niggard love represt—
Six sons successive, and thy later care,
Two daughters fair, have drank; for this be thine
Those best delights approving conscience knows,
And whilst thy days with cloudless suns decline,
May filial love thy evening couch prepare,
And sooth thy latest hours to soft repose.' P. XV.

A Guide to the Church, in several Discourses; to which are added two Postscripts; the first, to those Members of the Church who occasionally frequent other places of Public Worship; the second, to the Clergy. Addressed to William Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B. a Presbyter of the Church of England. 8vo. 7s. Boards Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

IF a young man, born of parents who were dissenters, and accustomed to a regular frequentation of the places of worship belonging to that class of the community, as well as to a diligent

perusal of the scriptures, should put this question to himself, 'Why do I go to the meeting, and not to the church?' and if, in consequence of this thought, he should for a time attend the chapels of the papists, the churches established by law, and the meetings of protestant dissenters, could he be justly censured when he should at length join the church, on being fully convinced of the preservation of the apostolical doctrines in greater purity within the pale of that establishment than in any other system? The author of the present work would, we doubt not, praise the original dissenter for his conduct; if he should join the church of Rome, he would be favoured by the catholics: if he should prefer the presbytery, the elders would make no objection to such an exercise of private judgment. This right of judgment ought, indeed, to be the basis of all religious communion. Without it, the pagan could not have quitted his superstition for the purer light of the gospel, and the protestant could not have separated from the Romish church; nor can any church, resting upon other grounds than a conviction of the purity of its doctrines, stand upon a solid foundation. But, though this right must be allowed by all true Christians, the exercise of it may, from latent prejudice or erroneous judgment, subject an individual to great inconvenience; and, in the exercise of it, the Christian is bound to follow the rules of our Saviour and his apostles. These rules he may misunderstand or misapply; and, though fully convinced of the rectitude of his choice, he may not only appear to others to act (but really may act) erroneously. We therefore agree with this writer only in part, on the subject of private judgment; but he seems to confine it too closely when he makes a distinction between the case of the churches of England and Rome, and the case of the dissenters and the church of England. All parties had a right to separate on a conviction of the errors of others: but they acted improperly in separating, if they did not follow the word of God. When one declares that he is in the right and the other in the wrong, he only says in words what his actions before had manifested: but he cannot settle the controversy; nor will the others be influenced by his arguments.

'Freedom of inquiry' (says our author) 'into the grounds of religion, is readily acknowledged to be the distinguishing principle of the protestant cause. But this principle, if not exercised under proper restraint, will destroy the cause it is designed to serve. That law must be useless, from which every man has a plea of private exemption lodged in his own breast. And all constituted authority in the church must be annihilated, if the right of private judgment in religious matters, in the extent to which it is carried by some people, is to be admitted.' p. 152.

There ſeems to be a miſconception in the phraſe—'all conſtituted authority muſt be annihilated;' for, before the individual joined the church, this conſtituted authority was nothing to him; and, when he had joined the church, his union with it was voluntary. His continuance alſo within the pale muſt be equally voluntary on his part; for the true church diſdains all but voluntary members; and the greateſt puniſhment that it can inflict is to ſeparate an individual from its communion.

From not attending ſufficiently to the rights of private judgment, Mr. Daubeny runs into the uſual errors reſpecting the term *ſchiſm*; and, indeed, upon the ſin of ſchiſm and the nature of the church, his arguments appeared to us ſo ſimilar to thoſe of the catholic writers, that we looked back to the title-page to ſee to which church he belonged.

'Looking into the writings of St. Paul, I ſee ſchiſm ſpoken of as a carnal ſin; and that this ſin conſiſts in a ſeparation from the communion, and a ſetting up of teachers independant of the government, and deſtructive of the unity of the Chriſtian church. A ſin which, beſides its being the parent of confuſion and diſorder in the church, is moreover deſtructive of that charity or brotherly love, by which it was deſigned that Chriſtians ſhould be joined together.' P. 45.

The unity of the Chriſtian church is a favourite phraſe with the catholics, who, with our author, do not comprehend that this unity conſiſts not in the viſible union of members in one community, but in that great union of the members of Chriſt's body, diſperſed over all parts of the earth, viſibly united to communities of different perſuaſions, but all agreeing in the belief that Jeſus is the Meſſiah, and loving each other.

But, inſtead of entering minutely into the diſcuſſion of controverſial points, we will preſent our readers with the general object of the work in the author's words, whence they may eaſily collect the nature of the ſentiments which pervade the compoſition.

'The eſtabliſhed church of this kingdom is a branch of the church of Chriſt. The congregation to which you are joined, is a manifeſt ſeparation from it. The teachers to whoſe care you have committed yourſelves, own no relation to that ſpiritual ſociety, to which all Chriſtians ought to be united. To make uſe, then, of the language of the primitive church, here is altar ſet up againſt altar, and paſtor againſt paſtor. From whence it follows, that if there ever was ſuch a ſin as that of ſchiſm, in any age of the Chriſtian church, it is now to be found among us. It behoves you, therefore, to take this ſubject into ſerious conſideration. Should our church require any terms of communion with which

you are persuaded you ought not to comply, so long as that persuasion lasts, your separation from the church ought to continue. But it must be remembered at the same time, that your persuasion in this case will be your justification in the sight of God, in proportion only as it has been built upon rational and conscientious conviction. Should it have been taken up from passion or prejudice, or adopted without examination; and should any means of information have been neglected which might have been made use of for the direction of your judgment, your error in this case will be your sin, because it has been derived from your neglect; and your consequent separation from the church will be also a sin; for one sin will not be permitted to be pleaded in excuse for another.' P. 259.

This specimen may perhaps induce our readers to join with us in opinion, that Mr. Daubeny is not likely to meet with success in his attempt to guide the dissenters to the church; but, if we cannot fully approve either his arguments or his authorities in the former part of the work, we with pleasure accede to the greater part of his address to the clergy. In this part, his observations on the poignant severity of Mr. Wilberforce against the clergy are manly and judicious, tempered with great candor to the satirist (if we may so call him) of the order; and he properly discriminates between the unguarded conduct of a few and the serious demeanor of the generality. The latitudinarian sentiments of Dr. Paley are also reprehended with justice and dignity; and, while the clergy are properly sheltered from the envenomed darts of a fierce antagonist, and put upon their guard against the delusions of unlimited liberality, those of one description are mentioned in such a manner as will excite attention to a great abuse in the church. To render that attention more general, we will conclude our article in the words of the present writer.

'But the clergy, some individuals of the body at least, have still more to answer for on this subject. A freedom of opinion on church matters, has led, as it might be expected, to a freedom of practice. Whilst some by their writings, have put the establishment of the church, as it were, quite out of sight; others by their conduct have openly withdrawn Christians from it; by becoming officiating ministers in places of public worship independent of episcopal jurisdiction. How such conduct is consistent with the established government of the church; how the circumstance of a minister of the church taking upon himself to preach in a place of worship unlicensed by the bishop, is to be reconciled with canonical obligation; with what propriety such a minister can, in the liturgy of the church, pray against schism in the place where he is in the actual commission of the sin, are points upon which I feel myself at a loss to determine. For, as I have always understood,

the schism of which such a minister is guilty, strictly corresponds with that sin, against which the apostles and first bishops so loudly inveighed, which consisted in breaking the unity of the church, by a separation of particular congregations from the authority of their respective bishop. But exclusive of this important consideration, there is, moreover (as the subject strikes me) something like two fallacies practised upon this occasion. The proprietors of these separate places of worship, by sheltering them under the toleration act, prostitute an act of the legislature to a purpose for which it was never made. By so doing, what was designed only as an indulgence to those who dissented from the church, becomes ministerial to the actual division of the church itself. This is a fallacy practised upon the legislature.' P. 459.

An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Mental Derangement. Comprehending a Concise System of the Physiology and Pathology of the Human Mind. And a History of the Passions and their Effects. By Alexander Crichton, M. D. Physician to the Westminster Hospital, and Public Lecturer on the Theory and Practice of Physic, and on Chemistry. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

THE science of metaphysics, though disgraced by subtilties and refinements which have rendered it the object of mirth and satire, is certainly of considerable importance; and it does not require that great genius, those extensive speculations, by the aid of which alone it has been supposed to be intelligible, or capable of improvement. It consists in the history of the mind, in an observance of its various functions; and it demands only patient thought and undisturbed reflection. The field, however, is overgrown with weeds; and these, rather than the sterility of the ground, have retarded the progress of the labourer, and diminished his harvest. It is the purpose of the present writer to collect, under fixed principles, a number of loose facts stated in the writings of physicians and philosophers, and to connect them with the functions of the mind, which have been most clearly understood and explained. In our language, one attempt only is mentioned; and indeed it is the only professed publication of this kind—we mean Dr. Arnold's work on the Nature of Insanity. In addition to our remarks on that performance *, we have had frequent occasion of noticing the subject incidentally; and, if our observations could be conveniently brought together, they would form a system on the subject, as they were written with a general systematic view. Our opinions have not, on the whole, great-

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* See our LIIId and LXIId Volumes.

ly differed from those of Dr. Crichton, of which we now proceed to a survey.

'The objects of my inquiry (says our author) are the causes of insanity, and the various diseased affections of the human mind, if such an expression can be admitted. The order into which I have arranged these, in consequence of the investigation which has been instituted, is founded on the analogy which the causes of mental derangement have with each other. I make four classes of causes. 1st. Physical or corporeal causes; 2dly, Over-exertion of the mental faculties; 3dly, A disproportionate activity of some of the said faculties; and lastly, The passions, or their influence.' P. xiii.

The remaining part of the preface contains a more expanded view of the plan, and accounts of the works of those writers who preceded Dr. Crichton. The remarks on Dr. Arnold's production and that of M. Dufour, in particular, appear to us to be just and apposite.

To the first book, on the physical causes of delirium, are prefixed some observations on irritability and sensibility. In this part of his inquiry, our author has examined Girtanner's doctrine, that irritability arises from, and is proportioned to, oxygen; but this was too trifling, and too distant from his principal object, to require a minute investigation, though we allow that his arguments are just, and that he has completely succeeded in destroying that visionary system. When he denies that irritability is connected with a fibrous structure, because it is found where no fibres can be detected, he is, in our opinion, too rash. The medusa, for instance, at first sight seems most distant from a fibrous structure, though irritable; but Spalanzani, after a close examination, has discovered fibres in this imperfect animal, particularly in the parts most irritable; nor can Dr. Crichton's argument be admitted, before we are certain that we know the tenuity of the nervous fibre in its ultimate state of division, and the extent to which it may be covered with a mucilaginous or gelatinous substance, without ceasing to be irritable. Irritability, we know, is never proportioned to the sensibility of an organ; but, from the fullest view of the subject, we are not prepared to deny, that it consists in a principle distinct from the nervous. It is the consequence of a peculiar organization of the muscle, deriving activity from the nerves of the organ.

On the subject of sensation, Dr. Crichton is copious and correct. The change produced in the brain by the previous impression on the nerves, he calls *sensorial impression*. This, he thinks, occasions a corresponding change in the mind, which he calls *mental perception*. We have repeatedly explained ourselves on this subject: we can see nothing farther than the sensorial impression, without meaning to add, that no

third link exiſts. This doctrine, we have alſo endeavoured to ſhow, is not materialiſm, or involved in its uſual conſequences; and, until we can ſee inſtances of mind acting independently of body, we muſt conſider this laſt ſtep as at leaſt uſeleſs in a phyſiological view.

Having examined the nature of nervous impreſſion, Dr. Crichton concludes, that, from the cineritious part of the brain, a fine fluid is ſecreted, which contributes to give ſoftneſs and pulpineſs to the nerves; and that this fluid, when compreſſed in any part, communicates the 'figure of impreſſion' to the adjoining portions, and thence to the brain. The fluid ſeems to be elaſtic; but he does not think that it reſembles æther, or any of the rarer fluids which have been aſſigned by ſpeculatiſts to this purpoſe; much leſs does he confide in thoſe opinions which attribute the communication to the nerves themſelves, either as elaſtic ſtrings, or contractile organs.

This hypotheſis of ſenſation is afterwards applied to the external ſenſes, but not with extraordinary ſucceſs. What relates to hearing is erroneous, ſince our author conſiders the beſt *media* of ſound as being elaſtic, and is not aware that air is one of the worſt, and water one of the beſt, conductors of it. On the other hand, what relates to ſight and ſome of its phænomena, is philoſophical and correct.

There is another kind of ſenſe, which Dr. Cullen would have called a ſenſation of conſciouſneſs, and which the Germans ſtyle ſelf-feeling: we allude to that conſciouſneſs which we have of a general healthy or morbid ſtate and its degrees. This is ſuppoſed to reſide in the extremities of all the nerves, thoſe of the five ſenſes excepted.

All cauſes which produce pleaſure or pain are ſuppoſed to increaſe the action of the arteries which accompany the nerves. Whatever gives a moderate excitement, is thought to produce pleaſure; what occaſions a diminiſhed excitement, cauſes uneaſineſs; and the derangement of a nerve is the cauſe of pain. This may be, *in general*, true; but the exceptions and modifications will be numerous. Dr. Crichton attributes too much to chemical ſtimuli. We may inſtance hunger, which does not ariſe from any ſtimulus, ſince it may be counteracted, as in the Indian method, by external preſſure, or internal diſtenſion, from ſubſtances neither abſorbent nor alimentary.

In the fifth chapter, the writer proceeds to delirium, and properly diſtinguiſhes what have been ſtyled erroneous perceptions, by the term *diſeaſed*, ſince many erroneous perceptions are not maniacal or delirious. The exciting cauſes of delirium are,

'1ſt. Phyſical, or corporeal cauſes; ſuch as too great determination of blood to the head, as in fevers, or intoxication, diſeaſed viſcera of the abdomen, poiſons, exceſſive diſcharges, &c.

'2dly. Too great, or too long continued exertion of the mental

faculties, as in the delirium which often ſucceeds long continued and abſtract calculation; and the deliria to which men of genius are peculiarly ſubject.

'3dly. Strong paſſions, ſuch as anger, grief, pride, love, &c.' P. 141.

In many inſtances of delirium, there is a præternatural determination of blood to the head; perhaps in every one there is a determination of this kind, or a fixed cauſe of continued irritation within the brain. On the former concluſion, the following remarks are ſubjoined.

'1ſt. We obſerve that a mere increaſed determination of blood to the head, provided the circulation be ſo free that a great congeſtion does not ariſe, is not the cauſe of delirium, ſince in the caſes of ſevere exerciſe, and in many fevers, where the pulſe beats 120 in a minute, and the face is fluſhed and full, no ſuch phenomenon takes place.

'2dly. That an increaſed quantity of blood ſent to the head, or the quickneſs with which it circulates there, are not the immediate cauſes of delirium, is further evinced by this fact, that the delirium of fevers, and many caſes of phrenzy, begin when there is very little quickneſs of pulſe, and often continue after that ſymptom is greatly ſubſided.

'3dly. Diſſections demonſtrate in the cleareſt manner that although a vaſt variety of morbid appearances have been detected within the heads of delirious people, eſpecially phrenitic * patients, yet there is no one which has been uniformly preſent in all analogous caſes; and therefore there is no reaſon to believe that any one of them is to be conſidered as the immediate cauſe of the alienation of mind, but rather as accidental effects, ariſing from various cauſes which have occurred either previous to the commencement of the diſorder, or during its attack. Tumours of various kinds, oſſifications of arteries, and the membranes envelloping the brain, hydatids, ſtony concretions, increaſed vaſcularity, diminiſhed vaſcularity, coloured ſpots, increaſed denſity, increaſed ſpecific gravity; preternatural laxity, ulceration, ruptured veſſels, extravaſations of blood, lymph, and ſerum, not only on the ſurface, but in the cavities and in the ſubſtance of the brain; and independent of all theſe appearances, a vaſt variety in the form of the ſkull, has been detected in various caſes. The chief circumſtance, however, which proves that they are rather conſequences than cauſes of any particular diſeaſe, is, that they have been found not only in phrenitic patients, but alſo in idiots, melancholic patients, hyſterical ones, paralytic ones, and epileptic people.

'4thly. In all caſes of that peculiar kind of delirium called phrenzy, the firſt phenomenon of diſeaſe appears to be a diſordered ſtate of ſenſorial feeling, if the expreſſion be permitted. All im-

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* The proper word is *phrenetic*.

pressions on the brain are powerfully felt there. Those derived from the external senses, if they are calculated to excite any desire, or passion, do so in a most uncommon degree; and the reaction of these mental impressions disorder the whole frame. The person acts as if from an involuntary impulse, which does not admit of the operations of reason. Hurry, uncommon strength, bustle, and violence, characterize all the actions and expressions of the patient; every thing creates an uncommon excitement of nervous energy in him.' P. 165.

'Upon the whole, I conclude that the delirium of maniacs, when it has the peculiar character of that which has been described, always arises from a specific diseased action of those fine vessels which secrete the nervous fluid in the brain. This diseased action appears to be one which, independent of its specific nature, by which it is distinguished from common inflammation, or scrophula, is a preternaturally increased one; and this I think is proved by the quickness of the external senses, the irascibility of mind, the heat of the skin, the flushed countenance, and uncommon energy of body which maniacs evince. This hypothesis explains the reason also why it often has periodical exacerbations, and remissions. They who believe that tumors, ulcers, and ossifications of the brain, or increased specific gravity, or increased hardness of the same, give birth to mania, must necessarily be at a loss to explain why the delirium ever ceases while such causes exist; but if it arises from diseased action, it must cease, and may, or may not return, according as a variety of other circumstances conspire to its re-excitement.

'All the phenomena of the phrenzy of maniacs are either diseased feelings, or aberrations of the mental faculties.

'That diseased feelings should arise from diseased action of the arteries of the brain, or of the nervous system, is easily understood, since in fact every change in the physical state of the nerves produces of itself a diseased sensation; and independent of this, it necessarily alters all impressions of external bodies which are transmitted through these parts.

'Upon what general principle the aberration of the mental faculties is to be accounted for in such cases, by those who believe the mind to be essentially distinct from the brain, will be shewn in the chapter on memory, in which this curious inquiry comes more naturally before us than at present.

'The fine vessels of the brain and nerves which secrete the fluid principle, on which sensation depends, must be subject to all the laws of irritability which regulate the action of the other vessels of the human body. If they are capable of being excited into too great action, whether it be of a specific kind or not, they are also subject to torpor after it.

'But if the principle on which sensation depends be too scantily

secreted, delirium may arise; for in this case impressions, *ab interno*, are weakened before they reach the mind, and consequently those which spring up there from the association of ideas, or which are excited by diseased bodily feelings, acquire a disproportionate vivacity; that is to say, without being stronger than they are in general, they appear more vivid, on account of the weakness of the impressions of external objects. The patient, therefore, naturally believes that they have a real existence, and his discourse and actions spring from this source.

'In such a delirium, attention is greatly and necessarily diminished, and therefore the ideas are not so permanent as in maniacal phrenzy, where the patient is often agitated by one thought only for a considerable length of time; hence the images which present themselves to the mind of those who labour under this low kind of delirium, are often transitory, and their discourse is consequently very incoherent.' P. 174.

It is observed, that, if no congestion be formed, no rapidity of circulation will produce phrensy. The remark, however, must be understood with some limitations, and particularly this, that the brain has received no local injury. It often happens, that patients are phrenetic only when causes of general excitement have occurred; and this has been observed where tumours or other local diseases have been found in the brain, or where local injury has been known to exist, in consequence of previous violence from wounds. In fevers, it must be admitted, phrensy occurs, when the pulse is not uncommonly quick or strong; but there may still be a local congestion in the head. Even such phrensies begin with fullness of the face, inflamed eyes and very acute sensations; and dissections show, that the brain is unusually full; or the effects of such fullness have been found in abscesses, or in that dissolved state of the brain which resembles gangrene. Though the general appearances, on dissection, are various, yet they meet in one point, and show that some cause of irritation exists, or that the effects of such previous irritation may be observed; nor is any argument to be drawn from the occasional cessation of mania, while the fixed cause exists, since it often acts only as a predisposing cause, as in those who from previous fracture or depression of the skull are subject to fits of phrensy, only when other causes of excitement concur.

In general, Dr. Crichton is constrained by his theory, to acknowledge only two causes of phrensy, viz. too copious, or too sparing, a secretion of the nervous fluid. He overlooks a principal cause—an unequal distribution of the nervous influence. *His* causes can scarcely ever operate to produce the different kinds of delirium; for we have seen, that, even in the low kind, there are marks of increased excitement

in the brain; and, in the higheſt kind, while the mental functions are moſt powerfully excited, the extremities are cold, their ſenſibility is impaired, and the heart and arteries, except in the true phrenſy, are not greatly affected. All the cauſes will ſeemingly meet in the hypotheſis of an unequal diſtribution of the nervous influence; and we conſider the ſecretion of a nervous fluid as too uncertain a baſis.

The ſuperiority of intellect in man, compared with other animals, is connected with, if it depend not on, the ſize of the brain. This bulk of the organ is not neceſſary for the vital or the animal motions, ſince children have been born in health where the brain was deficient, and the nerves ſeemed to unite only in a very minute maſs. It muſt therefore be ſuppoſed to be ſubſervient to intellectual operations; and this extenſive communication, while free, is probably neceſſary for aſſociated ideas, for extent of memory and freedom of reaſoning. If this be true, a partial excitement of any part, or any obſtacle to the free communication of impreſſions, muſt be attended with derangement of the intellectual powers; and, almoſt in every inſtance, the firſt ſymptoms of delirium appear to be irregular or erroneous aſſociations. A portion of the brain, indeed, is ſometimes deſtroyed, and local diſeaſes have appeared in its ſubſtance, without any delirium or only with occaſional derangement, when other cauſes, either mental or bodily, have concurred. This, however, forms no objection. The brain is conſtituted in every one for the various purpoſes for which its functions can be exerted; but its ſtrongeſt exertions are ſeldom required, and many 'mute inglorious Miltons' have ſunk undiſtinguiſhed to the grave. If therefore any defect or obſtacle to the full freedom of communication be found, it is not probable that exigencies will occur, in which it may be required. If they occur either by excitement of the arterial ſyſtem, or the exertion of the mental functions, the injury is diſcovered, though often overlooked, and the moment is conſidered as unfit for mental exertion. Many are delirious only when inflamed with wine; ſome women on the fullneſs occaſioned by pregnancy, or the accumulation of blood previous to menſtruation. Many are in part ſo, from the perception of numerous images, rapidly preſented to the mind; and ſome from intenſe ſtudy. We therefore think, on the whole, that the exceſs or defect of nervous energy will not explain the ſymptoms of delirium, but that we muſt look for another cauſe, which is probably an unequal excitement.

The general ſymptoms of delirium; its prediſpoſing and exciting cauſes, &c. are detailed in this work with propriety and accuracy. Hypochondriaſis is alſo correctly deſcribed; and the queſtions in what view, and in what degree, it may be accounted hereditary, are well ſtated.

We were particularly pleafed with the chapter on hypochondriafis; and our author's opinion, that, when it arifes from difeafed vifcera, the erroneous fancies of the patients generally concern their own frame, while, in the mental hypochondriafis, they relate to external affairs, is, we think, ingenious. But we are inclined to imagine, that the origin of hypochondriafis is always mental, and the affection of the vifcera fecondary, fince we can more eafily perceive the influence of the mind on the vifcera, than the contrary.

The fecond book contains the natural and morbid hiftory of the human mind; in other words, its phyfiology and pathology. Dr. Crichton enlarges too much on the forms of matter, and the arrangement of molecules, which are irrelevant to the fubject of an immaterial principle. He thinks, that there is 'a certain point or place within the head where all the nervous fenfations terminate, and where they unite and become objects of perception or thought.' The principle, which perceives, he calls mind, and diftinguifhes it from brain. This opinion we cannot controvert, fince it is beyond the reach of our faculties; the image is traced to the brain, and we then become confcious of it, by means which we cannot underftand. Dr. Crichton, with more propriety, diftinguifhes the *faculties* of mind—thofe, for inftance, of perception, affociation, memory, &c. and difcriminates, from thefe, *two principles*, confcioufnefs and volition. He calls them principles, as they do not modify our thoughts, but are excited to action by them. The defence of the exiftence of the immaterial principle is very able; and the remarks, in oppofition to Dr. Prieftley, are pointed and juft.

The chapter on attention, poffeffes great merit. The faculty and the power of attention are undoubtedly very different; for the faculty is the fame, whether it be exerted or not. That attention is fubject to will, as Dr. Crichton contends, we dare not affirm. On examining ourfelves, we are rather inclined to think that it is not: we cannot force the attention, but we can enforce our application, and the fubject fixes the mind. The difficulty of fixing the attention feemingly confifts in the mixture of other confiderations with thofe to which we would attend.

The fucceeding chapter is on mental perception, and our author fupports the opinion of Ariftotle on this fubject, in oppofition to Dr. Reid, and fome other philofophers, though we ftrongly fufpect, that Ariftotle meaned, by fpecies, fenfible images. In this chapter, Dr. Crichton explains one circumftance, which, at times, perplexed us in our examination of his work. He obferves, that the fenforial impreffion is only a continuation of nervous impreffion, and therefore perhaps did not require a new appellation. It is, in reality, the

change produced in the organs of ſenſe, carried to the mind for its obſervance and its determination to action. A diſeaſe of this faculty is ſaid to be fatuity; but this ſeems a bodily diſorder from an original defect of organization; ennui from a want of ſufficiently frequent or vivid impreſſions; and vertigo from their being too numerous and rapid. Yet theſe are bodily diſorders produced by cauſes which act wholly on the material ſyſtem. They are not to be cured by any attention or regard to the mind. Ennui, which appears to be more particularly a mental affection, is, in reality, only torpor, from inaction of mind: the perſon who feels it, like the horſe that is too dull to be excited by the whip, requires the ſpur.

Memory, our author informs us, ſhould have a more appropriate term, and be ſtyled recollection, to diſtinguiſh it from recognition; the latter being only recollection, when the ſubject is again brought before the mind; the other a mental exertion, without any aſſiſtance. Recollection, he thinks, is wholly dependant on the aſſociation of ideas; and he defends Mr. Hume's principles of aſſociation againſt the objections of the later metaphyſicians. Mr. Hume, he remarks, ſpeaks only of the aſſociation of ideas; his critics treat of thoſe of emotion, &c. which formed no part of his ſubject. The ſcientific aſſociation, firſt ſuggeſted by the abbé Condillac, is indeed an exception: it conſiſts in the ſcientific arrangement of a new idea, with thoſe related to it, and is of courſe recalled by the aſſociation of its correlate ideas, not by that of time, or place, or other connections. With reſpect to the cauſes of memory, our author rejects the ſyſtem of veſtiges; yet, for the reaſons aſſigned by its ſupporters, which are very fairly ſtated, we are inclined to think it the effect of ſome corporeal impreſſion. He has remarked, that tonics will reſtore it, after fever. Time and proper remedies will reſtore it completely, after fractures of the ſkull, apoplexies, &c. We knew a man, who, after a concuſſion of the brain, could not reckon more than three without confuſion, and knew nothing of the courſe of huſbandry on his eſtate for ſome years previous to the accident. Afterwards he poſſeſſed his faculties entire, and had a perfect recollection of almoſt every circumſtance of his former life. This is not a ſolitary or a peculiar inſtance. How theſe various circumſtances can be reconciled with corporeal veſtiges, we know not; yet the phænomena of dreaming ſeem to ſhow that theſe probably take place; for, as we have often had occaſion to remark, we never knew any images preſented in dreams, which had not their prototypes in external impreſſions.

The laſt chapter of the firſt volume relates to judgment; and it demands our unqualified approbation.

(*To be continued.*)

The Reconciliation: a Comedy, in five Acts. Now under Representation at the Theatre Royal, Vienna, with unbounded Applause. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1799.

THE English reader is now qualified to judge of the merit of Kotzebue, as so many of his dramatic pieces have been translated. Possessed of uncommon, and indeed unsurpassed, talents, he writes with the careless rapidity of our English play-mongers, contents himself with the applause of an audience, and rather seeks present profit than future fame. With the despotism of genius, he commands our feelings, and, with the ardour of a reformer, directs them in favour of his own opinions. The Reconciliation partakes less of his opinions, and less of his faults, than any of his former plays, Benyowsky excepted; but it partakes equally of his talents.

The story of the comedy is briefly this. The twin brothers, Frank and Philip Bertram, have been long at variance, each claiming a garden, the title to which, after fifteen years of litigation, is not yet decided. Both brothers have good feelings; but Eyterborn, the lawyer, has an interest in preventing their reconciliation; and Mrs. Grim, Frank's housekeeper, continually misrepresents to him the conduct of his brother and niece, in hope of securing his property to herself. The character of this lady may be understood from the following scene, between Frank and his old servant.

'*Jack.* (*Good-naturedly.*) Good day to you, captain.

'*Frank.* Good day to you, Jack.

'*Jack.* This is your birthday, sir.

'*Frank.* I know.

'*Jack.* I am heartily rejoiced at it.

'*Frank.* I know that likewise.

'*Jack.* You yesterday broke your sea foam tobacco-pipe.

'*Frank.* Well, Jack booby, what business have you to put me in mind of it? It was a cursed foolish trick. You must know, doctor, I suffered last night most confoundedly in that great toe. Your bath of muriatic acid, that your Mr. Rowley, or what you call him, has so much recommended, wouldn't do; and so, I smack'd the pipe on the floor, and dash'd it to a thousand pieces: that didn't mend matters neither. But mind ye, Jack Buller, all men will play foolish tricks, but I have met none yet, that liked to be put in mind of them.

'*Jack.* I meant no harm, sir; it was to serve only as a kind of introduction. I have bought this wooden head, and a tube to it of ebony: if it be not too coarse, and captain Bertram would do me the favour to accept of a trifle, on his birthday, of old Jack—

'*Frank.* Is that it? Come, let's look at it.

'*Jack.* It's not sea-foam, sure enough. But then, captain Bertram will remember, that Jack Buller's love for his master is not altogether mere foam, neither.

'*Frank.* Hand it, old boy.

'*Jack.* It ought to have a silver edging, I know; but Jack couldn't afford it.

'*Frank.* Thank ye.

'*Jack.* Will you keep it, sir?

'*Frank.* Surely.

'*Jack.* And will you smoke out of it?

'*Frank.* Most certainly. (*Putting his hand in his pocket.*)

'*Jack.* (*Observing what he is about.*) And you will not return me any thing for it?

'*Frank.* (*Withdrawing his hand suddenly.*) No, no; you are right.

'*Jack.* Hurah! Now, Mrs. Grim may bake her cake of cabbaged groats, if she please.

'*Frank.* Fie, Jack. What do you say?

'*Jack.* Truth. I am just come out of the kitchen. She is making the devil of a fuss about her cake, and yet she must be told this very morning, that to-day was her master's birthday. I have been enjoying it these four weeks.

'*Frank.* And because you have a better memory, you would blame the poor woman? Shame on ye!

'*Jack.* And please your honour, the woman is a good-for-nothing—

'*Frank.* Avast!

'*Jack.* Yesterday she was to make you a wine soup, but she used beer as a substitute; and to-day, by way of making it up, she treats you with a cake.

'*Frank.* Hold your tongue.

'*Jack.* She'll let you want your very necessaries; mustn't you beg for a clean shirt, as if it were alms?

'*Frank.* (*Passionately.*) Hold your tongue; I bid ye.

'*Jack.* When you was bled last year, she had whole boxes full of linen, and there wasn't as much as a bandage for her master. Wasn't I obliged to tear my sunday's shirt to pieces in a hurry to let you have one?

'*Frank.* Jack, you have a scandalous tongue. Go to the devil with your pipe. (*Throwing it at his feet.*)

'*Jack.* (*Looking wistfully, alternately at the pipe, and at his master.*) I a scandalous tongue?

'*Frank.* Yes.

'*Jack.* You won't have my pipe?

'*Frank.* No; I'll take nothing of a fellow that will be good alone.

'[Jack *vexed, takes the pipe, and throws it out of the window.*

'*Frank.* Fellow! what are you about?

'*Jack.* Throwing that pipe out of the window.

'*Frank.* Are you mad?

'*Jack.* What muſt I do with it? You won't have it; and I would certainly not once ſmoke out of it in all my life; as often as I puff out the ſmoke, I muſt ſay to myſelf, "Jack Buller, thou art a wretch; the man whom thou haſt ſerved honeſtly and truly for thirty years, has called thee a ſcandalous babbler." And then I muſt each time weep like a child. But when the pipe is once gone to pot, I ſhall forget it. I'll think my poor maſter was ill, and meant no harm.

'*Frank.* (*Affected.*) Jack, come hither. (*Shaking him by the hand.*) I meant no harm.

'*Jack.* (*Kiſſing his hand.*) I knew that. I have the beſt heart for you, ſir; and when I ſay, that ſuch an old hypocrite cheats you, and lives luxuriouſly on the money you have earned with ſo much trouble, my blood boils.

'*Frank.* Are you at it again?

'*Jack.* Deal by me as you like. But I am launched; and all muſt come out now. Two days ago I by chance made a diſcovery:—In my garret there is by the ſide of the fire-grate a hole in the floor with a ſlider to it; whoever built this houſe muſt have had his reaſons for leaving a hole juſt at that place. I was ſtanding there buſy rummaging among my old rags, when the ſlider ſtruck my ſight. How! thinks I to myſelf, what may that be for? and ſo I knock'd my foot againſt it, the ſlider gave way—and look ye there—you may have a peep through it into Mrs. Grim's little chamber.

'*Frank.* And liſten, if you have a mind?

'*Jack.* And liſten, if one loves one's maſter.

'*Frank.* Well, and what have you diſcovered there?

'*Jack.* That miſchief maker, Eyterborn, teaches her to ſharpen and hook the arrows which ſhe ſhoots at your ſtrong box.

'*Frank.* (*Paſſionately.*) Avaſt, fellow, avaſt! Has the devil got the better of you, to make you alight to-day on every bright mirror, like ſome impudent fly? Eyterborn, the moſt honeſt man in town—

'*Jack.* I ſhould think that honeſty, if it be of the right ſort, ought to ſtand the look of any one that peeps at it through a hole in the garret.

'*Frank.* Old boy, thou giveſt me to-day a peep into the very hold of thy heart.

'*Jack.* So much the better: my ballaſt is love and fidelity for my maſter.

'*Blum.* I think it worth while at any rate to inquire into the buſineſs.

'*Frank.* And ſo I will. I will hop up into the garret with my lame foot, and there—I can hardly pronounce the mean word—

and there liſten. But God have mercy on thee, fellow, if thou haſt belied me, I'll turn thee out of doors without mercy.

'*Jack.* (*Good-natured.*) Ah, but you wouldn't.

'*Frank.* What?

'*Jack.* No; you wouldn't.

'*Frank.* (*In a paſſion.*) But I will, I tell thee; I will by Jove! And if you ſay one ſingle word more, I'll turn you out immediately.

'*Jack.* Well, then old Jack Buller goes to the hoſpital.

'*Frank.* (*Affected by theſe words.*) To the hoſpital! What!—What would you do there?

'*Jack.* What elſe but die?

'*Frank.* Thou die in an hoſpital! Eh! doſt think I cannot take care of thee, if even I turn thee out of my houſe?

'*Jack.* Oh, yes! I know you are the man who would throw a purſe of money at me, ſufficient to ſupport me while I lived; but I had rather beg my bread than pick up the money thus thrown at me.

'*Frank.* Rather beg your bread? There is a proud fellow for you!

'*Jack.* Whoever diſlikes me, muſt not make me a preſent.

'*Frank.* Do you hear, doctor? Isn't it enough to give a man a fit of the gout, that hadn't it? When, four-and-twenty years ago, we fell into the hands of the Algerines, and the pirates had torn my very jacket from my back, that fellow had concealed a couple of gold pieces in his tail: no one found them out. Six months afterwards we were ranſomed. We got off with our lives and our freedom, but I was as naked as my hand; and muſt have begged my way home, (*in a faultering voice*) hadn't that fellow there ſhared his gold pieces with me: and now (*in the tone of paſſion*) he talks of dying in a hoſpital.

'*Jack.* (*Repentant.*) Captain—

'*Frank.* And when my crew had mutinied, and he revealed the plot at the hazard of his life—Haſt thou forgot that, fellow?

'*Jack.* You built my old mother a houſe for that.

'*Frank.* And when we engaged that brave Frenchman, yard-arm to yard-arm; when his broadſword ſtood over my head, and thou didſt lame the hand that was going to ſend me to my fathers—Haſt thou likewiſe forgot that? Have I built thee a houſe for that? Wilt thou ſtill die in an hoſpital? wilt thou?

'*Jack.* My good maſter!—

'*Frank.* Do you mean I ſhould like to have theſe words engraven on my tomb-ſtone: "Here lieth an ungrateful dog?" Immediately tell me you will die under my roof, you rogue! Come, ſhake hands.' P. 50.

Philip Bertram is poor, and recovering from illneſs. His phyſician exerts himſelf to reconcile the brothers, diſcharges

Philip's debts, and informs him, that it was his brother who paid them. This conduct is not wholly disinterested in Dr. Blum. An Englishman, we believe, will associate with this name the ideas of age and formality. Dr. Blum, however, is sufficiently young and amiable to obtain the heart and hand of Philip's daughter Charlotte; and, as this alliance relieves the poverty of Philip, his pride no longer prevents him from seeking a reconciliation with his brother. Charlotte goes to visit her uncle: Mrs. Grim will not admit her, and she is unwillingly retiring when Jack Buller enters.

'*Jack.* And you are not permitted to see the captain! who has prevented you?

'*Mrs. Grim.* I have.

'*Jack.* But, Mrs. Grim, by what right?

'*Mrs. Grim.* Never trouble your head about that: I know what I am about: you had better let miss go, master sleeps.

'*Jack.* Sleeps! I have been with him within these last ten minutes, and he bid me come back and read to him in the great book that tells of sea voyages. Stop but a minute, miss, I'll let him know directly.

'*Charl.* I'll stop with great pleasure.

'*Mrs. Grim.* *(Standing before the door.)* Jack you shan't: I won't have you let him know.

'*Jack.* Mrs. Grim, I am apt to think the devil is in you. *(Shoving her aside, and going into his master's room.)*

Mrs. Grim. What! Shove me about in that there manner!—Pinch blue and black marks on my arms!—that ruffian!—Well, miss, I wish you joy, *(with a sneer, and curtsying.)* Have you got off your part well? Do, now, flatter and coax your uncle for his dollars, do.

'*Charl.* I wish for nothing but his affection.

'*Mrs. Grim.* Ah, sure! That sounds sweet enough; but we know the key of that music—at the bottom it is nothing but disguised beggary.

'*Charl.* Dear Madam, in what have I offended you?

'*Mrs. Grim.* You, me!—in nothing—nothing at all. Good, miss, there are certain folks, that of certain folks couldn't take an offence in any shape; and if certain folks chose to repeat what report says of certain folks, certain folks wouldn't venture to lift up their eyes, for shame. But who mixes with the wash will be eaten by the swine; and a good christian can do no more than offer up his prayers for the punishment of sinners. Your servant, miss, *(curtsying low.)* [*Exit.*

'*Charl.* Our old Ann was right. That woman seems to be a downright termagant—but I am glad she is gone; now I can speak freely. If it be true, that my uncle is so passionate, so boisterous: my father's happiness is at stake. Courage Charlotte, a bad quarter

of an hour has no more than fifteen minutes! I hear ſome one come: oh, how my heart beats! (*ſtopping with ſymptoms of fear, in the back ground.*)

Enter Frank Bertram *and* Jack.

' *Frank.* (*ſitting down in a chair, without looking at Charlotte.*) My niece! what does ſhe want?

' *Jack.* I don't know; but her look is ſo meek, I'd ſwear ſhe brings good news.

' *Frank.* (*after ſome pauſe.*) But what is become of her?

' *Jack.* She is ſtanding yonder.

' *Frank.* I am to limp to her, very likely!

' *Jack.* Step forward, come near, good miſs.

' *Charl.* (*heſitating, fearful, and remaining on the ſame ſpot.*)

' *Frank.* (*liſtening if ſhe approaches.*) I hear nothing.

' *Jack.* She trembles.

' *Frank.* Zounds! What does ſhe tremble for?

' *Charl.* (*approaching a few ſteps.*) I—I—

' *Frank.* (*to Jack, who ſtands by his chair.*) Well, can't ſhe talk?

' *Jack.* She is crying.

' *Frank.* What the devil is ſhe crying for?

' *Charl.* (*taking courage*) I am come, dear uncle, to compliment you.

' *Frank.* (*roughly.*) On what occaſion?

' *Charl.* On your birth-day.

' *Frank.* You, likely, have been taught to walk of late, as you only come to-day for the firſt time.

' *Charl.* Ever ſince I had the faculty of thinking and feeling, my heart has attracted me hither.

' *Frank.* Has it! How old are you?

' *Charl.* Seventeen years.

' *Frank.* Ay, ay, on my return, ſixteen years back, you were a little thing, not bigger than my fiſt.

' *Charl.* At that time, my dear uncle carried me in his arms, and was fond of me. Old Ann has often told me, and I liſtened with pleaſure.

' *Frank.* Your good uncle was, then, a good-natured fool.

' *Charl.* I have loſt my good mother very early.

' *Frank.* Your mother was a good woman, a very good woman.

' *Charl.* Had ſhe lived, many things might not have happened.

' *Frank.* May be; ſhe has hindered your father from playing many a fooliſh trick.

' *Charl.* My father may have erred; bad people may have led him aſtray; but they have never been able to eraſe from his heart, his affections for his only brother.

' *Frank.* He has given me excellent proofs of this affection theſe fifteen years.

'*Charl.* That is over now. The court of conſcience has thrown a veil on what is paſſed. Go to my brother, ſaid my father to me, be thou the harbinger of peace; he will not reject thee, thou art innocent. He has been fond of thee, when a child; he has been fond of thy mother; for her ſake he will tender thee his hand, and thou wilt kiſs it with infantile affection.

'*Frank.* (*ſtill without looking at her.*) Sure! You can't help it. You muſt dance as he pipes. I have nothing againſt you. Go, child, God bleſs you.—What's your name?

'*Charl.* My name is Charlotte.

'*Frank.* Charlotte; right. Nay, I think, I am your godfather.

'*Charl.* Oh! the man, who received me among the Chriſtians; he, who promiſed me tenderneſs and affection, when I could not yet articulate a ſyllable, that man will not ſend me out of his houſe, without deigning to caſt a friendly look on me.

'*Frank.* (*throwing a tranſient glance at her, yet without fixing her in the eye.*) Very well. You may go. You will not be omitted in my will.

'*Charl.* That was cruel.

'*Frank.* (*paſſionately.*) Cruel! Why cruel?

'*Charl.* Dear good uncle, I wanted to be remembered in your heart, and not in your will.

'*Frank.* (*goodnaturedly, and ſomewhat embarraſſed.*) Ah, to be ſure—but I alſo muſt—I am your godfather, you know—and as you have had the trouble to call—(*putting his hand to his pocket.*)

'*Charl.* (*mortified.*) Had the trouble!

'*Frank.* There, take this little preſent: (*tendering her a few gold pieces, without looking at her.*)

'*Charl.* (*taking him by the hand, with great vivacity.*) I only ſee the hand you ſtretch out to me, and not what it contains: I'll keep that hand; drop my tears on your money, and beg you will take it back.

'*Frank.* (*affectionately.*) Girl, thou art proud.

'*Charl.* I'll be proud of your love. Here that proud girl kneels down by your chair, and prays for one ſingle kind look. My mother could leave me no more than her features; theſe features will put you in mind of a friend that has long ſince mouldered into duſt; this recollection will melt your heart, and give me, in you, a ſecond father.

'*Frank.* (*looks ſeveral times at her, ſeemingly affected, then turning to Jack.*) Jack, ſhe is very like her mother—Curſe it, Jack, help me out.

'*Jack.* (*ſobbing.*) I can't, captain.

'*Frank.* Thou crieſt, I declare: Jack, help me out, I tell thee.

'*Jack.* (*raiſing Charlotte, and putting her in Frank's arm*)

'*Frank.* (*ſtriving to get looſe.*) Avaſt; that's what you may call bending all your canvas by night and in a miſt.

'*Charl.* I perceive a tear in your eye, uncle: I wouldn't take all your gold for that.

'*Frank.* Well, well; thou haſt run me down altogether: go, kneel down on thy mother's grave, and thank her for it. When you were chriſtened, and I afterwards ſtood by her bed, ſhe took me by the hand—ſhe then juſt looked as thou doeſt now—and ſaid to me, dear brother, I lay this child near your heart, when I die, (*he cannot proceed, at laſt he ſays quickly*) Four weeks afterwards ſhe was gone, (*a pauſe, during which his muſcles appear in agitation.*) Come, my girl, come to my boſom.

'*Charl.* (*ſinks in his embrace.*)' P. 89.

But the reconciliation is not yet effected between the brothers. The diſpoſition of Frank towards it is increaſed by overhearing a converſation between Mrs. Grim and the lawyer, which, to the great delight of Jack Buller, ends in his being ordered to turn out the old houſekeeper. Dr. Blum now invites both brothers to the garden; and they forgive each other.

Some florid ſpeeches occur in the courſe of the play, which Kotzebue muſt have known to be unnatural, but which probably procured applauſe from thoſe who would not have diſcovered real beauties. In peruſing this piece, we were often reminded of Sterne, by its ſudden effect upon the feelings, and by its making the heart ſorrowful even in laughter. We ſhould add that it ſeems better adapted for repreſentation than any of this author's plays which we have yet ſeen.

The Life of Edmund Burke. Comprehending an impartial Account of his literary and political Efforts, and a Sketch of the Conduct and Character of his moſt eminent Aſſociates, Coadjutors, and Opponents. By Robert Biſſet, LL. D. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1798.

IN a life of Edmund Burke impartiality cannot be expected. To thoſe who contemplate the French revolution with abhorrence and alarm, he appears a prophet, whoſe voice was raiſed to warn and to preſerve; while thoſe who expect, from the aſcendency of the new principles, the increaſe of general knowledge and happineſs, regard him as a new St. Bernard, urging his countrymen to a new and more ruinous cruſade. As Mr. M'Cormick was the accuſer, Dr. Biſſet is the advocate, of Burke, equally zealous in the cauſe which he has eſpouſed; and though there are many who will not think him more ſucceſsful, all perhaps will agree in pronouncing him more able.

Edmund Burke was born in Dublin on the 1ſt of January, 1730. The firſt part of his claſſical education he received at the ſchool of Mr. Abraham Shackleton, a quaker. At this ſeminary he was conſidered as inferior to his brother Richard, though the father and the inſtructor of both more juſtly appreciated their talents. At the univerſity of Dublin, Edmund did not diſtinguiſh himſelf. Academical honours indeed are uſually attained by ſecondary talents: genius ſeeks them not, becauſe it values them not.

The firſt literary effort of our young politician, ſays Dr. Biſſet, was an expoſure of the abſurdity of democratic innovations. One Lucas had written daringly againſt government, and in conſequence had become popular. Burke imitated his ſtyle, and puſhed his principles to abſurd and dangerous conſequences.

On a vacancy in the chair of logic at Glaſgow, he applied for the profeſſorſhip without ſucceſs. After this diſappointment, he came to London, entered at the Temple, and wrote for 'daily, weekly, and monthly publications.' Extreme application injured his health. Dr. Nugent, the phyſician whom he conſulted, not only relieved his complaints, but became his intimate friend. This gentleman's daughter he afterwards married.

The Vindication of Natural Society, in which he expoſed the falſe philoſophy of Bolingbroke, was his firſt acknowledged performance.

'The diſciples of Bolingbroke conſidered his notions as applying to theology only; they did not foreſee that the ſame engines that were employed for the deſtruction of religion, which they did not regard, might be uſed for the ſubverſion of government, the annihilation of their privileges, and the forfeiture of their property, which they did regard.

'The tendency of religious ſcepticiſm to produce political confuſion was diſcovered by the penetrating genius of a Burke. He endeavoured to turn ſceptics to ſound thinking, by ſhewing that, if falſe philoſophy became general, it would ultimately deſtroy their rank, conſequence, and property.' P. 28.

It is not religious ſcepticiſm, or the atheiſm to which it too frequently leads, that has a tendency to produce revolution. Atheiſm is ſo far from being neceſſarily connected with revolutionary principles, that no ſyſtem more completely fits its diſciples for paſſive and abject ſlavery; witneſs the miſerable ſtate of Rome under the Cæſars, when the tenets of Epicurus were almoſt univerſally adopted by the patricians. It is not then doubt or diſbelief that is dangerous to a ſtate; it is the maintenance of any opinions differing from thoſe which the law has eſtabliſhed as moſt convenient for the ſubjects. The

charge of diſaffection has therefore been uniformly adduced againſt thoſe who promulgated religious doctrines contrary to the eſtabliſhed tenets. The Jews accuſed Paul as 'a mover of ſedition;' catholic perſecutors have uſed the terms *heretic* and *rebel* as ſynonymous; and, in our own days, the diſſenters have been hunted down as diſaffected. Where an eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment exiſts, thoſe who diſſent from it will ever feel themſelves oppreſſed. The increaſe of non-conformity, on this account, is dangerous to the ſtate.

The Vindication of Natural Society was ſoon followed by the celebrated Eſſay on the Sublime and Beautiful. The profits of this work, with a hundred pounds ſent to him by his father on account of its merit, relieved Burke from ſome pecuniary embarraſſments; and his company was now ſought by men of letters. In 1758 he commenced the Annual Regiſter. His friend William Gerard Hamilton procured him, not long after, a penſion of 300l. a year, on the Iriſh eſtabliſhment. His writings in the Public Advertiſer attracted the notice of the marquis of Rockingham, and he was brought into parliament.

'As a moſt profound admirer of his genius,' (ſays the biographer) 'I do not rejoice at the commencement of his connection with the marquis of Rockingham. From that time he may be conſidered as a *party man.* Burke ought not to have ſtooped to be the object of patronage. Like his friend Johnſon, he ſhould have depended entirely on his own extraordinary powers. He would have been able uniformly to act as his own genius prompted him, inſtead of employing his talents in giving currency to the doctrines of others—to have wielded his own club inſtead of a party diſtaff. In this part of their conduct, Johnſon and Hume, the only two literary characters of the age who can be placed in the ſame rank with Burke, acted more worthily of the ſuperiority with which they were bleſſed by nature. They attached themſelves to no grandees: they did not degrade the native dignity of genius, by becoming retainers to the adventitious dignity of rank. Johnſon, in his garret, the abode of independence, was ſuperior to Burke in his villa, the fee of a party. The former earned his ſubſiſtence by his labour, the latter received his by donative. Johnſon was independent,—Burke dependent. Beſides, the very extraordinary talents of Burke did not tend to promote party objects more effectually than good abilities, many degrees inferior to his, and mere knowledge of buſineſs, would have done. But had he been as ſuperior to others in party ſkill, as in genius and knowledge, the fertility of his fancy and the irritability of his temper muſt often have prevented him from directing his ſkill ſteadily to the moſt uſeful ends. For ſo much iraſcibility a ſituation of contention was ill ſuited.' p. 69.

When he espoused a party different from that to which Mr. Hamilton was attached, he honourably resigned the pension which that gentleman had procured for him.

In the trade of politics Burke must be considered as having been successful.

'Burke had now gotten a very pleasant villa near Beaconsfield, in Buckinghamshire. Various accounts have been given of his fortune at the time this purchase was made. The most general and best authenticated was, that the marquis of Rockingham advanced ten thousand pounds on a simple bond, never intended to be reclaimed: that Dr. Saunders of Spring Gardens advanced five thousand secured by a mortgage. It is certain that at Dr. Saunders's death, a mortgage on Burke's estate was found by the executor for that sum, and that the principal was considerably increased by arrears of interest. The whole price was twenty-three thousand pounds. It had been said, that Burke, his brother Richard, and Mr. William Burke, were very successful speculators in the funds. Edmund afterwards, as I shall shew, proved that he was totally unconcerned in any such transaction. How the remaining eight thousand pounds were procured, I have not been able to ascertain.' P. 112.

The manner in which he 'proved himself totally unconcerned in any such transaction' is thus related —

'About this period' [1778] 'Burke was defendant in a chancery suit, in which lord Verney was plaintiff. It was alledged by lord Verney, that Burke, his brother, and cousin, had been engaged with him in a stock-jobbing speculation, by which very great loss had been incurred; that lord Verney was the ostensible man, and had been obliged to make out the engagements; that Edmund Burke being the only one of the rest, who had any property, Verney had applied to him to defray his share of the debt. On refusal, he filed a bill against him in chancery, claiming Burke as his partner. Burke making affidavit that he was not, the matter was, of course, concluded in Burke's favour. A great clamour arose against Burke for clearing himself in this manner: but a positive oath of a man of character is certainly better evidence than vague rumour.' P. 314.

The biographer, we think, has too lightly passed over this affair. It is not credible that earl Verney would have brought an action against Burke, unless the latter had been concerned in the transaction. Both perhaps conceived their conduct to be justifiable; and both perhaps were in the wrong.

Dr. Bisset does not believe that Burke was the author of Junius's Letters: he thinks they may with more probability be ascribed to his brother Richard.

'In all this, however,' (he adds) 'there is hitherto no certainty. The time may arrive when the myſtery will be unfolded. The diſcovery of this hidden champion of anti-miniſterial politics may be, perhaps, in the power of a very eminent politician, ſtill alive, and the firſt philological philoſopher of the age.' P. 111.

The following extract notices a remarkable prejudice entertained by Burke.

'The genius, wiſdom, and learning of Burke did not prevent him from entertaining ſome opinions totally unfounded. Through life he had certain prepoſſeſſions, to which he was warmly attached, and reſpecting which, though in moſt of his converſations he was mild and unaſſuming, he could brook no contradiction. He moſt ſtrenuouſly denied the Iriſh maſſacre: he ſaid it was all a fiction. Being at one time intimately acquainted with Hume, he uſed to battle this point with him with great zeal: when preſſed hard by the ſtrong teſtimony and powerful arguments adduced by Hume, he uſed to ſay that the teſtimony proved nothing; and to quote an abſurd ſtory, to which, he affirmed, thouſands of Iriſh moſt confidently bore witneſs, "that the ghoſts of numbers of thoſe that had been killed, and thrown into the Shannon, often made their appearance on the banks of the river, to the great diſturbance of the neighbourhood." This mode of reaſoning, that one believed portion of hiſtory was falſe, becauſe a ſtory obviouſly falſe had been believed, was certainly very unworthy of Burke, and very unlikely to convince Hume; although he himſelf, when it favours his own prejudices, reaſons in the ſame manner. I am aſſured that Hume alludes to Burke in the following note to the fifth volume of the Hiſtory of England: "There are three events in our hiſtory which may be regarded as touchſtones of party men. An Engliſh whig, who aſſerts the reality of the popiſh plot; an Iriſh catholic, who denies the maſſacre in 1641; and a Scotch Jacobite, who maintains the innocence of queen Mary; muſt be conſidered as men beyond the reach of argument, and muſt be left to their own prejudices."

'So great is the inequality often to be found in men of the higheſt genius, that Burke could not bear to have this favourite notion attacked. There were three ſubjects on which he could not ſpeak without being tranſported into a rage, as violent as Johnſon, if whigs were praiſed, the Americans defended, or epiſcopacy cenſured:—Burke's were, through life, the Iriſh maſſacre; during the latter part of it, the conduct of Haſtings, and the French revolution. He never forgave Hume; and I am informed that, even ſo late as the laſt Chriſtmas he ſaw, in converſation with a counſellor of the firſt talents, he inveighed moſt bitterly againſt the hiſtorian for having alluded to him in his note.' P. 195.

This ſtrange prejudice, and much of Burke's ſubſequent

conduct, seem to prove that Hamilton's judgment of him was well founded. 'Whatever opinion' (said he) 'Burke, from any motive, supports, so ductile is his imagination, that he soon conceives it to be right.'

The commencement of the American war affords a striking parallel to that of the present ruinous contest.

'In America hostilities were now commenced. It had frequently been asserted in parliament that the colonists were cowards. One gentleman declared that with three thousand men he could over-run America. This opinion was also very generally received out of the house. Hardly was there to be met a half pay officer, who did not, at his village club, declare, that with two or three regiments he himself could subdue America. Burke, who knew the human mind, general history as well as the particular state, sentiments, and dispositions of the Americans, and could infer motive and action from situation and character, entertained a far different opinion; an opinion which the first battle between the British and provincial troops tended to confirm. Although the colonists were defeated at Bunker's hill, they lost fewer men than the British. Besides the valour of men fighting in what they conceived to be the cause of their own liberty, they had acquired great dexterity in the use of arms, and were excellent marksmen. The Americans made a successful inroad into Canada, and penetrated as far as Quebec.

'The British ministry not having foreseen so vigorous a resistance, had not made the preparations which coercive measures were found to require. Indeed it does not appear that they had been at pains, proportionate to the importance of the object, to attain full information on the dispositions and resources of the colonies: therefore, although we should admit the justice and even the expediency of the measures of administration, we cannot give them much credit for the wisdom of their plans and vigour of their efforts at the commencement of the rupture.' P. 250.

The sagacious mind of Fox, 'at the commencement of the war, foresaw the event. Fox perceived, and predicted, that men fighting for their liberty would be ultimately successful. He tried to dissuade his country from war, foreboding discomfiture and distress from such a contest. The admonitions of this great man were disregarded. His country hearkened not to his warning voice. The actual disaster and consequent calamity far exceeded the anticipation of even Fox's foresight.' P. 253.

Throughout the work Dr. Bisset labours to prove that Burke was consistent in his opinions; and, like an able advocate, he adduces whatever tends to favour his cause. It is unnecessary to follow him through the history of the American and present wars. The conduct of Burke, in both, is well known.

It is certainly poſſible for a *ductile imagination* to believe him conſiſtent in ſo firmly oppoſing the one, and ſo rancorouſly exciting the other.

Our author paſſes over the penſion of his hero with prudent rapidity. Incautiouſly, however, he aſſerts that it was preſented to him when he was no longer able to aſſiſt the miniſtry. Did Dr. Biſſet forget, or did he not chooſe to remember, that, after the penſion had been ſettled upon Burke, he again ſounded his ſavage war-whoop?

Though we differ widely from the author in our opinion of Mr. Burke's conduct, we agree with him in admiring the genius of the great orator; and, while we diſſent from the principles of his work, we are pleaſed with the temper in which it is written. Of this the following paſſage affords an honourable proof.

'On the celebrated ſpeech of Sheridan on the Begum charge, he' [*Burke*] 'beſtowed the following very high, but not exaggerated panegyric.

"He has this day ſurpriſed the thouſands, who hung with rapture on his accents, by ſuch an array of talents, ſuch an exhibition of capacity, ſuch a diſplay of powers, as are unparalleled in the annals of oratory; a diſplay that reflected the higheſt honour upon himſelf — luſtre upon letters — renown upon parliament — glory upon the country. Of all ſpecies of rhetoric, of every kind of eloquence that has been witneſſed or recorded, either in ancient or modern times; whatever the acuteneſs of the bar, the dignity of the ſenate, the ſolidity of the judgment-ſeat, and the ſacred morality of the pulpit, have hitherto furniſhed, nothing has ſurpaſſed, nothing has equalled what we have heard this day in Weſtminſter-Hall. No holy ſeer of religion, no ſage, no ſtateſman, no orator, no man of any literary deſcription whatever, has come up, in the one inſtance, to the pure ſentiments of morality, or, in the other, to that variety of knowledge, force of imagination, propriety and vivacity of alluſion, beauty and elegance of diction, ſtrength and copiouſneſs of ſtyle, pathos and ſublimity of conception, to which we have this day liſtened with ardour and admiration. From poetry, up to eloquence, there is not a ſpecies of compoſition, of which a complete and perfect ſpecimen might not, from that ſingle ſpeech, be culled and collected."

'After quoting this encomium, Mr. M'Cormick makes the following obſervations, which require animadverſion. "How ſweet is praiſe, when uttered by the lips of eloquence! Yet ſweeter ſtill, when it flows from the heart of ſincerity! But Mr. Burke's language, on this occaſion, was dictated by artifice. The near obſervers of his ſentiments and emotions could perceive that he felt himſelf ſurpaſſed by Mr. Sheridan in all the favourite walks of his own genius; that the canker-worm of envy had gnawed its way into his boſom; and that he ſtrove to conceal its ſharp corroſion under the ſhew of the moſt zealous and liberal applauſe."

'There is nothing easier than to assign bad motives, but their existence is to be proved by something more convincing than mere assertion. Is there any evidence that Sheridan was the object of envy to Burke? Mr. M'Cormick adduces none.' P. 430.

Of the writer's style we may observe, that it sometimes exhibits an unpleasing pomp and affectation.

A Voyage of Discovery, by Captain Vancouver. (Concluded from p. 31 of this Volume).

WHEN captain Vancouver had again sailed from the Sandwich Islands to examine the north-western coast of America, the first land which he approached was an island situated in 55° 48′ lat. and 205° 16′ long. He calls it, from the companion of Behring, Tscherikoff's Island. He proceeded to the isle of Trinity, and thence sailed up what was called Cook's River, but which appears to be only an inlet from the sea, terminating at no great distance from the spot where our immortal navigator desisted from his search, and seemingly connected at its eastern shore very nearly with Prince William's Sound. In this inlet the inhabitants were found to be courteous, sober, and honest; but they were poor, squalid, and in almost every respect uncomfortable. The Russians claim this part of America; and they probably will not be disturbed in their possession of it. This district offers little to the trader, the naturalist, or the speculative inquirer: the navigation of the inlet itself is rendered dangerous by numerous shoals.

The next opening, which might be supposed to lead to Hudson's Bay or the Atlantic, was Prince William's Sound. Captain Vancouver anchored in a port on its eastern side, named Port Chalmers; and the survey was pursued in boats, without the least prospect of success. On the western side the boats approached the eastern extremity of Cook's inlet, which was styled Turnagain arm. Mr. Whidbey's account of the country is curious.

'Although Mr. Whidbey had every reason to presume that his examination had hitherto been directed along the continental shore, yet from the very extraordinary manner in which we had found the coast of North West America divided, he could not help entertaining some doubts, until he arrived at the north-west extremity of this branch, situated in latitude 60° 48′, longitude 211° 52′. Here they had approached within twelve miles in a direction S. 60 W. of the spot where Mr. Whidbey had ended his examination of Turnagain arm. The intermediate space was the isthmus so frequently

alluded to before, on either ſide of which the country was compoſed of what appeared to him to be lofty, barren, impaſſable mountains, enveloped in perpetual ſnow; but the iſthmus itſelf was a valley of ſome breadth, which, though it contained elevated land, was very free from ſnow, and appeared to be perfectly eaſy of acceſs; a little to the eaſtward of this valley, a rapid ſtream of freſh water ruſhed down a gully in the lofty mountains, and found its way to the ſea through a margin of low land extending from the baſe of the mountains, and producing pine-trees, cranberries, and a few other ſhrubs. On the weſtern point of entrance into this brook was a ſmall houſe, about five feet high, and eight feet ſquare, covered in with bark, not built after the Indian, but evidently conſtructed after the Ruſſian manner; formed by logs of timber, and made tight by the vacancies being filled up with moſs and clay; the bottom was ſtrewed over with clean dried graſs, and appeared not only to have been recently inhabited, but to be a place of frequent reſort.

'This houſe, and the general appearance of the country, removed every doubt of their ſituation being then on the eaſtern ſide of that paſs, by which the Ruſſians maintain a communication between their ſettlements in theſe two extenſive inlets. Mr. Whidbey, however, for his further ſatisfaction, was very deſirous of finding the road or path by which the intercourſe was carried on; and although he was unſucceſsful in aſcertaining this, yet it did not appear to him that any particular track was neceſſary, as the valley had a tolerably even ſurface, was nearly deſtitute of any vegetable productions, and was equally paſſable in all directions. Its ſituation and character correſponded alſo with the deſcription of it given by the Ruſſians, and Mr. Whidbey's menſuration agreed nearly with the diſtance acroſs as ſtated by them, namely, about ſixteen verſts. Coincidences ſo concluſive were conſidered by him as ſufficiently ſatisfactory, without croſſing the iſthmus for more fully determining the point in queſtion, which was now placed beyond all doubt; nor could it be neceſſary for attaining the principal object of our voyage, that a more minute examination ſhould be made of this iſthmus, or of the ſhores of the intervening peninſula between Cook's inlet and Prince William's Sound.' Vol. iii. p. 180.

'At one of the points where the party had occaſion to land, a ſepulchre was diſcovered; Mr. Whidbey, in the courſe of this excurſion, had obſerved ſimilar monuments before, but they were all ſo old, decayed, and mutilated, that it was not an eaſy matter to determine exactly for what ſpecific purpoſe they had been originally intended; but it was now proved that their conjectures had been rightly formed. This tomb being of more recent date, Mr. Whidbey had it examined; a hole was found dug about a foot deep, five feet long, and four feet wide; at the bottom were ſome thin planks, and acroſs them, nearly in the middle of the grave,

two pieces of wood were placed about a foot asunder, and about nine inches thick, between which were deposited the remains of a dead body, rolled up in a seal skin, and carefully tied with thongs of the same material. These remains consisted of some ashes and calcined bones, which were concluded to be human; and as all the parts of the grave shewed evident signs of the action of fire, it is natural to infer, that consuming their dead by fire is the practice of the inhabitants. The relicts thus deposited were covered over with another plank, over which were strewed stones, moss, and some old broken paddles. The direction of the grave was nearly north and south, with a small pole about eight feet long erected at its south end.' Vol. iii. p. 182.

To engage in a minute geographical comparison of the statements of the captains Vancouver and Cook, with regard to the situation and extent of Montague island, is unnecessary. There is undoubtedly a considerable difference, which our present author attributes to an accidental loss of the nautical remarks which were made by his predecessor, between Cape Elizabeth and Kaye's island. This may have been the case; for, like captain Vancouver, we have too great confidence in the accuracy of Dr. Douglas to impute any inattention to him.

The country within view of Port Chalmers, in Prince William's Sound, was apparently verdant and fertile, but was, in reality, a morass of decayed vegetables on a rocky basis. The sea seems to be rapidly gaining ground, at least on the eastern shores; and if it should do so equally on the western, future navigators may sail through Passage Inlet to Cook's River, and suppose themselves to have found the strait which separates the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The inhabitants of these coasts appear to be less numerous than former navigators imagined. From the mutual confidence and good-will between them and the Russians, it is not probable that many have been destroyed in war: it is more likely that the number has been over-rated; or it may happen, that the Americans migrate to different shores in quest of subsistence, so that their apparent numbers are variable. The Russians in these districts are of the lower ranks; and they are not, it is said, in the service of the government, but of different mercantile companies. In refinement, delicacy, or appearance, they scarcely rise in the scale above the native Americans. The object of their settlement is the fur trade, which they seem to monopolise.

Behring's Bay, in all probability, does not exist in the place allotted to it by captain Cook. The bay which Behring seems to have visited, is that called by Mr. Dixon Admiralty Bay; and to this captain Vancouver restored the name of the Russian navigator.

Proceeding to Cross Sound, the captain anchored in a port on its eastern side, which he named Port Althorp: from this

place the examination was continued in boats. He there found that what had been considered as an indentation of the sea on the continent, was a paſſage to a ſtrait between another groupe of iſlands, which he called King George's Archipelago. The principal iſland lies to the eaſt of the ſuppoſed ſound, and within it is another of ſome extent, denominated Admiralty Iſland. In this courſe our navigators penetrated as far as 226° 45′ longitude, traced every minute opening on the ſide which could lead to the ſuppoſed paſſage, and ſeem, in every place, to have ſeen the real continent. Chriſtian Sound, it may be obſerved, was the northernmoſt point of their former inveſtigation; and this they now again reached from the north. It may therefore be concluded that no north-eaſt paſſage exiſts.

The Indians, in ſome parts of this inland navigation, were kind and friendly; but ſome tribes appeared perfidious and hoſtile. They have obtained fire-arms, and underſtand the uſe of thoſe implements of deſtruction; but they do not ſeem to have any great ſhare of genuine ſpirit. It is ſuppoſed that they burn their dead, and preſerve the bones in ſquare boxes on the tops of white pillars.

Lynn Canal, mentioned in the following quotation, is a continuation of the ſtrait which divides King George's Archipelago from Admiralty Iſland: its courſe is to the north, and a little to the weſt.

'The upper part of this arm, which after the place of my nativity, the town of Lynn in Norfolk, obtained the name of Lynn Canal, approaches nearer to thoſe interior waters of the continent, which are ſaid to be known to the traders and travellers from the oppoſite ſide of America, than we had found the waters of the North Pacific penetrate in any former inſtance. This approximation is towards the ſouth-weſt ſide of the Arathapeſcow lake, as laid down in captain Cook's chart, from which its diſtance is about three hundred and twenty geographical miles; but from the cloſe connection and continuation of the lofty ſnowy barrier, ſo frequently before adverted to, trending ſouth-eaſtward, and nearly parallel to the direction of the continental ſhore, little probability can remain of there being any navigable communication, even for canoes, between ſuch waters and the North Pacific ocean, without the interruption of falls, cataracts, and various other impediments.

'The boats were ſhortly joined in their way down the canal by a large canoe, in which there were about twenty Indians, with a chief, who aſſumed the character of king or principal chief over all the people reſiding up the brook. He introduced himſelf in a friendly and courteous manner, made Mr. Whidbey a preſent of a ſea otter ſkin, and cheerfully received a ſuitable return; but like the Indians who had viſited the veſſels, he did not care to venture

himſelf in the power of our party, and nothing could induce him to get into the yawl, but Mr. Whidbey himſelf going as a hoſtage into his canoe, and there remaining ſo long as he might think proper to ſtay in the boat. With this requeſt Mr. Whidbey did not think proper to comply, yet they accompanied our party down the canal, who in the evening reſted for the night on the eaſtern ſhore, about five miles to the ſouthward of Point Seduction; on their landing, the chief ſhewed much civil attention, and, as he had before done on all occaſions, uſed his utmoſt endeavours to impreſs our gentlemen with a good opinion of his ſincerity.

'This chief Mr. Whidbey repreſented as a tall, thin, elderly man. He was dreſſed in a much more ſuperb ſtyle than any chief we had hitherto ſeen on this coaſt, and he ſupported a degree of ſtate conſequence, and perſonal dignity, unuſual to be found amongſt the chiefs of North-Weſt America. His external robe was a very fine large garment, that reached from his neck down to his heels, made of wool from the mountain ſheep, neatly variegated with ſeveral colours, and edged, and otherwiſe decorated with little tufts, or frogs of woollen yarn, dyed of various colours. His head-dreſs was made of wood, much reſembling in its ſhape a crown, adorned with bright copper and braſs plates, from whence hung a number of tails or ſtreamers, compoſed of wool and fur wrought together, dyed of various colours, and each terminating by a whole ermine ſkin. The whole exhibited a magnificent appearance, and indicated a taſte for dreſs and ornament, that we had not ſuppoſed the natives of theſe regions to poſſeſs.' Vol. iii. p. 249.

Suſpicion was, as it frequently is, the reſult of guilty intentions in this chief; and Mr. Whidbey's forbearance and ſteadineſs were exemplary.—In ſome of theſe iſlands there were the firſt appearances of cultivation, which our author had obſerved in his progreſs from the north. The plant cultivated ſeemed to be tobacco.

To the north-weſt of Cape Ommaney, the north-weſtern termination of Chriſtian's Sound, captain Vancouver made his laſt ſtand, and aſcertained with great preciſion what we have already explained. This dreary ſpot afforded few articles of utility or luxury.

'Mr. Whidbey obſerves, that in no one inſtance during his reſearches, either in the ſeveral branches of Prince William's Sound, in thoſe extending from Croſs Sound, or, in the courſe of his preſent excurſion, did he find any immenſe bodies of ice on the iſlands; all thoſe which he had ſeen on ſhore were in the gullies or vallies of the connected chain of lofty mountains ſo frequently mentioned, and which chiefly conſtituted the continental ſhore from Cook's inlet to this ſtation; though in different places theſe moun-

tains are at different distances from the sea side. He likewise observes that all the islands, or groups of islands, were land of a moderate height, when compared with the stupendous mountains that compose the continental boundary, and were still seen to continue in a south-eastern direction from this shallow passage, whilst the land to the westward of the passage assumed a more moderate height, was free from snow, and produced a forest of lofty pine trees. These observations more particularly applying to the former, than to the subsequent, part of this survey, I have, for that reason, thought proper to introduce them in this place, and shall now resume the subject of Mr. Whidbey's excursion.

'The day being fair and pleasant, Mr. Whidbey wished to embrace this opportunity of drying their wet clothes, putting their arms in order, and giving a thorough cleaning to the boats, which, from the continual bad weather, had now become an object of real necessity. For this purpose the party landed on a commodious beach; but before they had finished their business a large canoe arrived, containing some women and children, and sixteen stout Indian men, well appointed with the arms of the country, but without any fire-arms. They behaved in a very friendly manner on the beach for a little time, but their conduct afterwards put on a very suspicious appearance; the children withdrew into the woods, and the rest fixed their daggers round their wrists, and exhibited other indications, not of the most friendly nature. To avoid the chance of any thing unpleasant taking place, Mr. Whidbey considered it most humane and prudent to depart, and he continued his route down the branch along its south-west shore, passing some islets that lie near it. The Indians did the same, but kept on the opposite shore, and in the course of a little time the canoe disappeared. In the hope of being quit of these people, the party stopped to dine near the high bluff observed from point Vandeput, but before they had finished their repast the same Indians, who must have turned back unperceived, for the purpose of crossing over to follow the boats, were seen coming round the point of the cove in which was the party, and not more than a quarter of a mile from their dinner station; as the canoe approached a musket was fired over it, in order to deter the Indians from advancing; but this, as on former occasions, seemed to encourage them, and they appeared to come forward with more eagerness; but on a second shot being fired at the canoe they instantly retreated with all possible speed, and were soon again behind the point: yet as Mr. Whidbey suspected they might be inclined to attempt by surprize, that which they dared not venture to do openly, he hastened the meal of his party, and put off from the shore; this was scarcely effected, when his conjectures were proved to have been well founded, by the appearance of a number of armed people issuing from the woods, exactly at the spot where our party had dined; and nearly at the same

instant of time the canoe was again seen paddling round the point of the cove.

'This conduct, on the part of the Indians, greatly attracted the observation of the party, and whilst they were watching the motions of these people, their attention was suddenly and most agreeably called to an object of more pleasing concern; that of the boats under Mr. Johnstone's direction coming within sight, about two miles distant.

'The stratagem thus practised by these Indians is alone sufficient to shew, that our apprehensions on board, for the safety of our absent friends, had not been without reason; and it is one, amongst many other circumstances, which taught me to believe, that we were but just in time for the accomplishment of the arduous and hazardous service in which we had been so long engaged; as the very unjustifiable conduct of the traders on this coast has encouraged the inhabitants to attempt such acts of hostility, that the means we possessed to repel their attacks, would, in all probability, have been insufficient for our protection, had it been our lot to have tried the experiment one year later.' Vol. iii. P. 282.

Some part of the country, to the east and the south of the district then investigated, appeared to be fertile, and capable of producing many useful vegetables. At the head of the inlets, sea otters seemed to abound, chiefly perhaps on account of the salmon, their favourite food.

'Mr. Whidbey in his observations on Admiralty Island, remarks, that notwithstanding this island seemed to be composed of a rocky substance, covered with little soil, and that chiefly consisting of vegetables in an imperfect state of dissolution, yet . . . . it produced timber, which he considered as superior to any he had before noticed on this side of America. He also states, that in his two last excursions several places were seen, where the ocean was evidently incroaching very rapidly on the land, and that the low borders extending from the base of the mountains to the sea side, had, at no very remote period of time, produced tall and stately timber; as many of their dead trunks were found standing erect, and still rooted fast in the ground, in different stages of decay; those being the most perfect that had been the least subject to the influence of the salt water, by which they were surrounded on every flood tide: such had been the incroachment of the sea on these shores, that the shorter stumps, in some instances at low water mark, were even with, or below the surface of the sea.

'This same appearance has been noticed before in Port Chalmers, and on this occasion Mr. Whidbey quotes other instances of similar incroachments not only in Prince William's Sound, but also in Cook's inlet; where he observed similar effects on the shores,

and is of opinion from these evidences, that the shallow banks occupying so large a part of Gray's harbour, have recently been produced by the operation of one and the same cause: and it is not less reasonable to conclude, that the waters of the North Pacific have, possibly for ages, had a general tendency to produce the same effect on all the coast comprehended within the limits before mentioned.' P. 293.

We cannot conclude this part of our account without the warmest commendation of the zeal, diligence, and judgment, with which the search was conducted. Scepticism now can furnish no one loop on which a doubt can hang; and the conclusion drawn by us from the various circumstances which had before occurred, is now confirmed by decisive evidence.

Captain Vancouver, returning to Nootka, found the Spanish commandant kind and friendly. While his men were refitting the ships, he visited the most powerful of the neighbouring chiefs. He found the country dreary, mountainous, and infertile, in a high degree. The power of Maquinna, the principal chief, seemed not considerable; but the whole was displayed; every exertion was made to render this visit pleasing to his guests, and his utmost eloquence was employed, to convince his subjects and neighbours of the high honour conferred on him.

'Having taken our seats, about thirty men began each to beat with a stick on a hollow board, in order to assemble the inhabitants of the village to that spot. This summons being readily obeyed, Maquinna informed the assembled crowd with great earnestness, and in a speech of some length, that our visit was to be considered as a great honour done to him, and that it had taken place in consequence of the civil and orderly behaviour of all the inhabitants of the Sound under his authority towards the English and the Spaniards. This, he observed, was not the case with Wicananish, or any other chief whose people committed acts of violence and depredation on the vessels and their crews that visited their country; but that such behaviour was not practised at Nootka, and that for this reason they had been more frequently visited; by which means their wealth in copper, cloth, and various other articles of great value to them, had been increased far exceeding that of any of their neighbours. He particularly mentioned some tribes, but by appellations we were not acquainted with, over whom he seemed to consider our visit to him as a great triumph; and from his manner of speaking, there evidently appeared to exist no small degree of jealousy between them. He then proceeded to enumerate the various good qualities that marked the character of the Spaniards and the English; that both were strongly attached to himself and his people, and that he hoped that we should be much pleased by being entertained according to their manner of receiving visitors.

'The performers I believe were all in readineſs without, and anxious to begin their part; for the inſtant Maquinna had ceaſed ſpeaking, the hollow board muſic recommenced, and a man entered the houſe moſt fantaſtically dreſſed in a war garment, which reached to the calves of his legs, but not below them; this was variouſly ornamented, as was alſo his face with black and red paint, ſo that his features appeared to be moſt extravagantly diſtorted, or, more properly ſpeaking, they were ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable: his hair was powdered, or rather intirely covered with the moſt delicate white down of young ſea fowl, and in his hand he bore a muſket with a fixed bayonet, making altogether a moſt ſavage, though at the ſame time a whimſical figure; this man was followed by about twenty more, decorated with conſiderable variety after the ſame faſhion, but differently armed; ſome like himſelf with muſkets, others with piſtols, ſwords, daggers, ſpears, bows, arrows, fiſh-gigs, and hatchets, ſeemingly with intent to diſplay their wealth and power, by an exhibition of the ſeveral implements they poſſeſſed, as well for the uſe of war, as for obtaining the different neceſſaries of life.

'This indeſcribable group of figures was drawn up before us; and notwithſtanding we were perfectly ſatisfied of the harmleſs and peaceable intentions of theſe people, yet I believe there was not one of our party intirely free from thoſe ſenſations which will naturally ariſe from the ſight of ſuch unuſual objects; whoſe ſavage and barbarous appearance was not a little augmented by their actions and vociferous behaviour, accompanied by an exhibition, that conſiſted principally of jumping in a very peculiar manner. In this effort the legs did not ſeem to partake much of the exertion, although they ſometimes raiſed themſelves to a conſiderable height; and we underſtood that thoſe were conſidered to be the beſt performers, who kept their feet conſtantly parallel to each other, or in one certain poſition, with the leaſt poſſible inclination of the knees. After theſe had finiſhed their part, Maquinna performed a maſk dance by himſelf, in which, with great addreſs, he frequently and almoſt imperceptibly changed his maſk; this ſeemed to be a very favourite amuſement of his, as he appeared to be in high ſpirits, and to take great delight in the performance. The maſks he had made choice of certainly did credit to his imagination in point of whimſical effect; his dreſs was different from that worn by any of the other performers, conſiſting of a cloak and a kind of ſhort apron, covered with hollow ſhells, and ſmall pieces of copper ſo placed as to ſtrike againſt each other, and to produce a jingling noiſe; which, being accompanied by the muſic before deſcribed as a ſubſtitute for a drum, and ſome vocal exertions, produced a ſavage diſcordant noiſe as offenſive to the ear, as the former exhibition had been to the eye. But as the object of our viſit was a compliment to Maquinna, a previous determination to be pleaſed inſured our plaudits, which were bountifully beſtowed, and re-

ceived with great pleaſure and ſatisfaction by the ſurrounding ſpectators.' P. 307.

As Maquinna may be deemed an Engliſh ſubject, we have been the more copious in our extract. We muſt now haſten with the captain to Monterey, where the friendly benevolence and hoſpitality, which the Engliſh experienced in their firſt viſit, were renewed. The diſpute reſpecting Nootka was then, from the particular inſtructions of the Spaniſh court, ſatisfactorily adjuſted.

Some remarkable meteorological appearances in this part of the voyage deſerve our notice.

'In the evening, about ſun-ſet, a very ſingular appearance was obſerved over the interior mountains, immediately behind the high land of this lofty projecting promontory. An immenſe body of very denſe clouds enveloped the ſummits of thoſe mountains, riſing in a confuſed agitated ſtate like volumes of ſteam from a boiling cauldron of great magnitude; theſe expanded to the northward, and obſcured all that part of the horizon, whilſt to the ſouthward it was perfectly clear and unclouded. From our own experience, as well as from the information we had derived from the Spaniards, we had long been led to conſider Cape Mendocino as ſituated on the diviſionary line between the moderate and boiſterous climates of this coaſt. For this reaſon, however unſcientific it may appear, we could not avoid entertaining idea, that from the immenſe accumulation of exhalations, which the ſtupendous mountains in this immediate neighbourhood arreſt, aroſe thoſe violent ſouth-eaſt ſtorms, with which, further to the northward, we ſo frequently contended, and by which the coaſt of New Albion, to the ſouthward of this ſtation, is certainly but ſeldom, and never in ſo violent a degree affected. This extraordinary appearance inclined us to believe that ſome turbulent weather was not far remote, but from what quarter we could not gueſs, as the ſteady favourable north-weſt gale, and the appearance of clear and ſettled weather, in the direction we were ſteering, did not give us reaſon to apprehend any inconvenience from the wind ſhifting to the ſouth eaſtward; and its blowing from the oppoſite point had always been conſidered as the harbinger of moderate and pleaſant weather. This general rule was on Tueſday morning partly confirmed, and partly contradicted, as the vapours we had obſerved collecting on the preceding evening, were now found to have been deſtined to diſcharge their fury from a quarter we had leaſt expected. During the night we had made ſuch progreſs along the coaſt, that by four in the morning it became neceſſary to haul to the wind, in order that we might not overſhoot our intended port before day-light. At this time the wind at N. N. W. attended with a moſt tremendous ſea from the ſame quarter, had increaſed to ſuch a degree of violence, as allowed us to haul off the ſhore under our foreſail and

ſtorm ſtayſails only; but the foreſail, though a very good one, not being able to reſiſt the violence of the ſtorm, was about ſun-riſe blown nearly to pieces; this was immediately replaced with the beſt we had, the topgallant-maſts were ſtruck, and the ſhip made as ſnug as poſſible; but unable to ſcud with ſafety before the ſtorm, we lay to, with the ſhip's head to the weſtward, under the ſtorm ſtayſails, it being impoſſible to ſhow more canvas, and of courſe too hazardous to ſteer for that part of the coaſt I wiſhed to make, or to attempt running under our bare poles into a port, of which we had ſo little knowledge as that of the bay of Sir Francis Drake; to keep the ſea was therefore our only prudent alternative.' P. 322.

This ſtorm appeared to be local only; but it was leſs connected with Cape Mendocino than our author at firſt imagined. The whole difficulty may be explained by ſuppoſing two currents of air, in oppoſite directions, at different heights; a circumſtance which is not very uncommon, and which we once were able to aſcertain by the eye. The appearance of the accumulated clouds on a high hill did not then greatly differ from the preſent deſcription.

In the neighbourhood of Monterey a mountain was ſeen which reſembled a noble building fallen to decay. The columns were apparently of conſiderable magnitude, and of an elegant form: the colour of the ſtone was a yellowiſh white. From the colour, and the depth of the angles between the columns, we can hardly ſuppoſe the mountain to be baſaltic; nor do we find volcanic appearances common in theſe regions. The adjacent country is beautiful and fertile.

In the proſecution of the voyage, the Engliſh approached the Maria Iſlands, which do not offer any thing uſeful to the navigator, or important to the philoſophical inquirer. Cocos iſland is more intereſting to both. The latitude of this iſland was found to be 5° 35′, and its longitude 273° 5′. Its appearance is not inviting; its mountains are high and precipitous, and their ſides barren; but it affords water in abundance, of an excellent quality, and cocoa nuts in profuſion. Various navigators have enriched the lower grounds with different ſeeds, and the woods with ſwine and other animals. To theſe captain Vancouver made ſome additions; and the iſland may in time afford a comfortable ſupply of moſt kinds to diſtreſſed ſeamen. Sea-fowl abound in the rocks; and their eggs frequently occur in their neſts among the coarſe graſs. A great variety of fiſh frequent the ſhores. Among theſe is the ſhark, which, our author obſerves, does not always turn on its back in taking its prey. When a ſhark was hooked, the others ſometimes tore it in pieces from the hook, and devoured it. There were three ſpecies; the tiger ſhark, beautifully

ſtreaked down its ſides, the brown and the blue ſharks. The two firſt were voraciouſly hoſtile to each other; but they did not devour the laſt ſpecies.

Captain Vancouver ſeems to have fallen in with the Gallipagos Iſlands, ſituated within 1° ſouth of the equator, in the longitude of 267° 53′. They are broken and volcanic, but afford anchorage and refreſhments. Theſe we ſhall more particularly notice in our examination of captain Colnett's voyage.

Our navigators, after ſome misfortunes which could not be repaired at Juan Fernandez, their intended reſting-place, proceeded to Valparaiſo, on the coaſt of Chili. In this courſe the ſcurvy appeared, and made a rapid progreſs, notwithſtanding every precaution which modern experience and refinement could ſuggeſt. It at laſt appeared, that the cook had indulged the men with the ſkimmings of the kettle in which the ſalt beef had been boiled, to render their peaſe more palatable. This circumſtance ſeems to have been the cauſe of the diſeaſe; but it was cured by the refreſhments procured in Chili.

At Valparaiſo the ſtrangers were received with the moſt hoſpitable kindneſs; and, while the ſhip and rigging were undergoing neceſſary repairs, our author and his officers accepted the invitation of the governor-general to St. Jago, the capital of Chili. The country through which they paſſed was barren in a great degree: the inhabitants wanted many of the luxuries, and ſome of the neceſſaries, of life; but ſilver ſeemed to abound among them.

The deſcription of the ladies of St. Jago, and the account of that town, we will quote.

'The generality of the ladies in St. Jago are not wanting in perſonal charms, and moſt of thoſe we had the pleaſure of meeting this evening might rather be conſidered handſome than otherways; they are, in general, brunettes, with expreſſive black eyes, and regular features; but a want of that neatneſs, which is ſo much valued amongſt Engliſhmen, and ſo much the pride of my fair countrywomen, was conſpicuous in many particulars, eſpecially in the total neglect of their teeth, which are ſuffered to become intolerably dirty. This inattention was not only in a very high degree offenſive, but it appeared to us incompatible with the pains that ſeemed to have been taken in the decoration of their perſons; for, at this aſſembly, they were all ſuperbly dreſſed, agreeably to the faſhion of the country. The moſt ſingular part of their dreſs was a ſort of bell-hooped petticoat, that reached from the waiſt to juſt below the knees, though ſome of them did not wear them quite ſo low; immediately beneath this external part of their dreſs appeared the under linen garment, the bottom of

which, as well as the taſſels of their garters, was fringed with gold lace.

'The general deportment of the ladies was lively and unreſerved; and they very obligingly loſt no opportunity of relieving us from every little embarraſſment, to which the diſadvantages we laboured under, in not underſtanding their language, frequently expoſed us; and I verily believe that there were few occaſions, during the whole of our voyage, in which our want of knowledge of the Spaniſh language was more ſincerely regretted; as it deprived us of the pleaſure of enjoying the lively ſallies of wit which we had reaſon to believe occurred very often in the female circles, by the laughter and applauſe that their converſation ſo frequently occaſioned. This was certainly an evidence of their natural ingenuity, though it did not amount to a proof of their minds having been duly cultivated; and it is not without concern that I ſtate, from the teſtimony of their own countrymen, that the education of the female part of the ſociety in St. Jago is ſo ſcandalouſly neglected, as to confine the knowledge of reading and writing to a few of the ladies only. Some of them had the goodneſs to give us their names in writing, that we might the more eaſily diſcover and learn the true pronunciation of them; theſe were always written in large letters; but I do not mean from this circumſtance, or from our having received but few of their names, to infer, that the education of the ſex is as much confined as was repreſented to us; yet the circumſtance of their being totally unacquainted with any other language than the dialect of the Spaniſh ſpoken at St. Jago, evinced that their education was of a homely nature.' P. 433.

'The city of St. Jago, including the detached houſes or ſuburbs, I ſhould ſuppoſe, cannot be leſs than three or four miles in circumference; but this is only by eſtimation, as I did not converſe with any one who could, or did, anſwer me this queſtion; but as the ſtreets run at right angles to each other, and ſome of them are little ſhort of a mile in length, this computation cannot be very erroneous. The city is well ſupplied with water from the river Mapocho, which has its ſource in the mountains, at ſome diſtance from the capital, and is made to branch off in ſuch a manner, on its approaching the town, as to paſs through the principal ſtreets. This, in a hot climate, cannot but be ſuppoſed a very great luxury, and as conducing extremely to the health of the inhabitants; but the ſame want of cleanlineſs that pervades the inſides of the houſes, here manifeſted itſelf in the open air, and inſtead of this ſtream becoming the means by which the ſtreets might have been kept conſtantly ſweet, it is rendered a moſt inſufferable nuiſance, by the prodigious quantity of filth which is emptied into it from the houſes. As no care was taken that a ſufficiency of water ſhould be brought down to carry the ſoil and

nastiness away, nor to remove it in places where it formed obstructions to the current, and produced the most offensive exhalations; and as the streets, which are narrow, are partially paved with small stones in the middle, and with only a few flag-stones for foot passengers on the sides, our walking about the town was, from these circumstances, rendered very unpleasant.' P. 436.

Some miscellaneous remarks respecting St. Jago are new, but not generally interesting; and we have little to add from the subsequent part of the voyage. Our author doubled Cape Horn, searched in vain for l'Isle Grande (which we noticed in our review of the voyage of la Pérouse), and arrived safely at St. Helena. The French being then at war with Great Britain, he took advantage of the convoy of the Sceptre, and, with a large fleet of East-Indiamen, reached the mouth of the Shannon, whence he hastened to the Thames

Thus ended a voyage that had continued nearly six years, in which a very great extent of coast had been surveyed with persevering minuteness, and in which various geographical facts had been completely ascertained. One error, the great cause of the voyage, has been effectually destroyed; and no hope can now be entertained of the existence of a north-west passage in such latitudes as can render it at any time practicable.

While we contemplate with pleasure, in the fruits of the voyage, the increase of our geographical knowledge, we rejoice that it was attended with so little loss. Every hostile contention with the Americans was avoided with studious care. One man only died from disease—a flux communicated to the crew at the Cape by a Batavian ship. Three were drowned; one was poisoned by eating muscles; and one suddenly disappeared. A loss so trifling, when the number of persons employed, the length of the voyage, and the hazardous nature of the various services, are considered, is almost incredible. But, we fear, we must add to the losses that of captain Vancouver himself. His health, apparently delicate, seems to have been broken by the fatigues and anxieties of the voyage; and he did not long survive his return. In this narrative he has raised a lasting monument to the excellence of his head and heart; his judgment and his benevolence are equally striking. Of the merits of his work we need not speak. We have followed it with due attention; and having commended it in our progress, we shall merely observe at present, that it is equally instructive and interesting.

Lectures on the Nature and End of the Sacred Office, and on the Dignity, Duty, Qualifications, and Character of the Sacred Order. By John Smith, D. D. one of the Ministers of Cambleton. [*Campbell town*]. *8vo. 5s. Boards.* Wright. 1798.

THE many exhortations which have in all ages been addressed to the clergy on the nature of their office, seem to preclude much novelty on such a subject; yet, as the times may gradually introduce different customs repugnant to the sacred character, there will frequently be topics of this kind on which a pious teacher may interest his hearers or his readers. Even the same points, varied only in their form, may attract those who would have spurned at the dryness of the last century, or at the rigid and fanatical notions of the early fathers; and we may add, that a work of this kind cannot be superfluous in times like the present, when it is more necessary than ever to add line upon line, and precept upon precept.

These lectures embrace every part of the clerical character. The style is not at all times correct; but the sentiments are just; and the writer's great object is to excite true ideas of the dignity of his profession, and a just abhorrence of those vices by which it may be degraded. To produce these effects, he condescends to adopt even the legendary tales of ancient days: but, for the sake of the moral, we will not make very strong objections to the vehicle in which it is conveyed. An instance of this kind may be seen in the vision of a saint entering upon his holy office.

'Coivin, now with God and his angels, had a vision to this purpose, on the day of his consecration to the ministry. Aweful thoughts filled his soul. A heavenly light shone in his cell. He turned his eye to the heavens, and, lo, they were illumined; he looked to the earth, and, lo, it was on fire. The judgment-throne was set, and the inhabitants of heaven and earth assembled. Michaël stood forth before the judge, and held in his hand that mighty balance, in which souls and their actions are weighed. When ordinary mortals were put in the scales, the standard by which they were tried was less and lighter; nor did they seem to be too scrupulously weighed, if the beam stood only near a poise. Nay, the breath of mercy made it sometimes incline in their favour, when all the pleas that made for them could not decidedly cast it. But when ministers came to be weighed, the standard was ten times augmented, for those of whom least was required; and, in general, that by which they were tried was the weight of the angel Ithiel, prince of the seventh or lowest order of the hierarchy of heaven. For God had ordained, that in the progressive scale there should be no blank, and that the highest order of men should reach the lowest order of superior beings.—Coivin reflected

on the dread office to which he was ſet apart; he perceived the aweful ſanctity and care which it required. His heart ſwelled; the tears burſt from his eyes; he wiped them with his hand, and the viſion vaniſhed. The impreſſion, however, remained, and Colvin lived on earth, innocent and active, as an angel of heaven.' P. 28.

We were pleaſed with a remark on public worſhip, which is particularly applicable to the church of Scotland and to many congregations of Engliſh diſſenters. After recommending the language of ſcripture, the author adds—

'Some, perhaps, may object, that, as moſt people already know the ſcriptures, neither of theſe methods has the novelty or variety of a ſermon, and will, therefore, be not ſo pleaſing; although I hope they will allow them to be at leaſt equally uſeful. I might have thought as they do, if I had not made the trial. But experience has corrected my judgment; for I find, by this courſe, that my people are better pleaſed, as well as more edified. It is true, almoſt all have the ſcriptures in their hands; but it is aſtoniſhing how little the greateſt part of them know of their contents. It is alſo almoſt incredible how little an ordinary congregation is benefited by a ſermon, and how poor an account the moſt attentive can ſometimes give of it, after they have heard it. One may perhaps preach an hour (in the manner that ſome do), and hardly one of a thouſand be the wiſer or the better. But not ſo if he read but a few minutes in the ſcriptures. Beſides, we ought to uſe the ſcriptures as we do our prayers, not ſo much with a view to inform our heads, as to impreſs our hearts, and to advance in piety; not to learn more, but to improve what we know already.

'On theſe accounts, I muſt ſay, that to read the ſcriptures, and to worſhip more, and preach leſs, in our religious aſſemblies, would certainly tend more to cultivate the religious affections of the ſoul, as few will find themſelves more edified by a ſermon, than by a ſelect portion of ſcripture. To this we may add, that the ſermons of the preſent age are generally more calculated to pleaſe and entertain the ear, than to work compunction in the ſoul, and change the heart. Hence the hearers almoſt always go away forming ſome opinion of the talents of the preacher, or the merits of the ſermon, rather than ſilently meditating on the ſubject, and applying it to their own ſituation. Accordingly, we go to church, as we ſay, "to hear ſermon," and not to ſpeak to God, or to hear God ſpeak to us, which ought to be the principal ends of our attending the courts of the houſe of God.' P. 178.

The practice of reading ſermons he reprobates; and, indeed, when we ſee that the bar and the houſe of commons reject ſuch a mode of delivering a diſcourſe, we are aſtoniſhed that it ſhould have ſo many advocates in the church. He pro-

perly obſerves, that Demoſthenes or Cicero, and even Paul or our Saviour, could not have produced ſuch effects as are attributed to their orations or diſcourſes, if their auditors had ſeen a precompoſed paper before their eyes.

'There is indeed a way of reading with a propriety and eaſe, which may in ſome degree reſemble ſpeaking. But the reſemblance at beſt is very faint and diſtant. Our very tone of voice, when we ſpeak, is different from what it is when we read. The firſt is the natural ſound of our organs of ſpeech; the laſt was acquired in learning to read, and ſtill ſavours of that coldneſs and indifference with which we then expreſſed what we did not underſtand. When we ſpeak, our words ſeem to be the immediate dictates of the heart, and will more eaſily find their way to the hearts of others. They will alſo be uttered with more ſpirit and freedom, than if our eyes were fixed on a paper, which would further deprive our words of thoſe ſignificant looks with which they might be accompanied; the powerful language of the eyes, ſo full of expreſſion, force, and perſuaſion. Reading, too, hinders us from obſerving the countenances of our hearers, which would be no leſs animating to us than ours to them. It hinders us from obſerving, whether they attend to us, whether they underſtand us, or whether they are moved; and, conſequently, from accommodating ourſelves always to their circumſtances. In ſhort, it is altogether incompatible with true oratory and action, and ſo much alters the nature of a ſermon from what it would be, if repeated, that it can never have the ſame effect upon an audience.' P. 219.

Though theſe extracts will enable our readers to form an idea of the author's manner, we ſhould not do juſtice to his pious zeal if we did not obſerve, that, throughout his performance, there reigns a ſpirit of devotion tempered with knowledge, that the ſubjects of each lecture are well ſelected and well treated, and that the young clergyman into whoſe hands the work may fall will reap no ſmall advantage, if he ſhould make it the object of his frequent attention.

Riſing Caſtle, with other Poems. By George Goodwin. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*. Robinſons. 1798.

THESE poems, it is ſaid, were written at and under the age of nineteen years. We would diſſuade young authors from theſe premature publications. A poet of nineteen, unleſs, indeed, he ſhould poſſeſs the *almoſt* miraculous powers of Chatterton, ſhould no more venture to publiſh his verſes, than a painter to exhibit his puerile ſketches. One advantage, however, accrues from this fault. The poems attract the attention of more impartial critics than would probably be found among

the author's acquaintance; and the young writer is taught what to avoid. The censure directed to another interests him not; but he feels and remembers it when applied to himself.

Rising Castle is, from its length, the most important piece in this little volume. It opens with a trite invocation to Fancy, and a trite address to Time. The ruined state of the castle is thus described.

'No spires burnish'd by the sun's last beam,
Attract far-off, the wandering pilgrim's sight;
Nor thro' the windows doth the taper's gleam,
Cheer the lorn traveller with its twinkling light.
No clock deep-sounding swells the buoyant gale,
Or at dim evening, or at early morn;
Not now its murmurs floating thro' the vale,
Rouse the poor vassal at the misty dawn.
Fall'n! are the spires that did erst appear,
Above the summits of yon waving trees;
Fallen! the turrets, which for many a year,
Woo'd the soft kisses of the mollient breeze.

'Now fades the splendour of the god of day,
As swift he journies to the western main;
And the mild lustre of each parting ray,
With purple tinges the pellucid plain.
Now o'er yon marsh, the mists of evening fly,
And the green raiment of the meadows hide;
Scarce can the traveller, far-off descry,
The cattle ranging o'er the green-hills wide.
Pale streaks of gold, adorn the varied sky,
And faint, and fainter, grows the sun's last beam;
The woods, the fields assume a sombre dye,
And the mist rises from the mazy stream.

'I love to see, the grey-smoke curling o'er,
The shadowing valley, or the village green,
The wheel revolving at the cottage door,
Where all is happiness, and peace serene.
I love to wander at the close of day,
The harmless pleasures of the cot to mark,
To hear sad Philomel's desponding lay,
Or, the wild quavers of the soaring lark.
Such scenes of nature, my young bosom cheer,
More than the music of Italian throats;
Who with such numbers can delight mine ear,
Say,—who can warble more melodious notes?' P. 13.

In this passage we find *spires* twice used as a dissyllable; and, in various pages, instances occur where this Procrustes poet has thus unmercifully stretched out his syllables.

The tale of ſir Andred and Gunilda, in this poem, is flat and unintereſting. A young author ſhould not venture to cope with Ovid and Muſæus.

In the Monodrama of Hero, the author has not ſufficiently attended to his ſtory The prieſteſs of Venus, remembering the endearments of mutual love, ſpeaks of its *calm enjoyments*, its *pureſt tranſports*. This is not warranted by Muſæus.

> οφειλε δε δυϛμορος ‘Ηρω,
> Χειματος ἱσταμενοιο, μενειν απανευθε Λεανδρου,
> Μηκετ’ αναπτομενη μινυωριον αστερα λεκτρων.
> Αλλα ποθος και μοιρα βιησατο.

> Ah ! had but Hero then forborne to urge
> Her hapleſs huſband o'er the boiſt'rous ſurge,
> Forborne to kindle the inviting light,
> To gain the raptures of one ſhort-liv'd night !
> But eager paſſion in her boſom roſe,
> Spurning reſtraint ; and fate decreed her woes.
>
> BEDFORD's Tranſlation of MUSÆUS.

Throughout the monodrama, it is evident that our young writer had that of Sappho in his recollection, without ſufficiently diſcriminating between the ſituations and feelings of the two characters. The death of Hero is certainly a happy ſubject for this ſpecies of poem ; but it ſhould be differently treated. She ſhould be looking for Leander, and agitated by the hope that the tempeſt might have deterred him from truſting himſelf to the ſea. The ſight of his corpſe ſhould drive her to ſuicide. Near the beginning of this ſoliloquy there is a paſſage which we muſt not paſs over without commendation.

> ‘ The brave Leander floats a livid corpſe,
> Beneath this tower ; while o'er his manly face
> The dark wave waſhes, and with plaintive moan
> *Plays 'mid his yellow ringlets.'* P. 46.

The *plaintive moan* is puerile ; but the image of the hair floating on the waters ſhows that Mr. Goodwin poſſeſſes the imagination of a painter or a poet.

The following ſketch, particularly the firſt part, conveys a very favourable idea of the writer's talents.

> ‘ Far as the eye can trace, a ſombre hue,
> That ſeems to mingle with the diſtant clouds,
> Darkens the ſurface of the placid deep,
> Full many a league ;—the ſeamen know it well ;
> And with fantaſtic whiſtling from the deck,
> Invite the coming breeze. It ſpeeds along,

And near, and nearer now, on fluttering wings,
Haſtes o'er the intervening ſpace.—Anon,
It wantons 'mid the ſhrouds, and wildly ſings
Moſt grateful muſic to the ſeaman's ear,
Shakes the ſlack cordage, and with friendly breath,
Expands the bellying ſails—

'Not now the ſun,
Pours his bright glory o'er the wide expanſe,
Nor gliſtens on the wave.—Not now the birds
Skim the green ſea, or dive amidſt the ſurge,
But haſten to the ſhore; for ſwiftly fall
O'er the rough ſurface of the moaning deep,
Eve's lingering ſhadows, and whilſt falling, veil
The ambient views.—

'It is not pleaſant now,
To feel the light gale's quivering pennons bruſh
O'er the cool cheek, or wave the dew-bath'd hair;
For from the ſea, the briny damps ariſe,
And on the æther floating, fling around
Such chilling coolneſs as doth ſhake the frame,
And make the ſoul moſt penſive.

'Now the miſts
Hide the far ſhore, and dim the proſpect round,
Nor can the eye well trace the diſtant bark,
With ſails dark ſwelling, nor the high church ſpire,
Tall cliffs ſteep-towering, nor the village ſmoke
In columns winding o'er the upland lawn.
For deep, and deeper grow the falling ſhades,
The clouds aſſume a blacker dye, and ſoon
Will night and ſilence reign o'er all around.' P. 115.

In the ballad of the Stranger there is little to commend. Mr. Goodwin's poems in blank verſe are indeed uniformly his beſt. He ſeems to have read the poems of a living writer with great attention, and to have copied his manner ſometimes too cloſely. In attempting to be *ſimple*, there is danger of becoming *inſipid* and *inane*. The Muſes ſhould not be tricked out in meretricious finery, neither ſhould they be in the coarſe dreſs of houſemaids.

Let not Mr. Goodwin imagine that we are criticiſing him with ſeverity and harſhneſs, or that it is our wiſh to diſcourage him from his poetical ſtudies. Had his volume been altogether worthleſs, had it contained no promiſe of better things, a few lines might have characteriſed it. On the contrary, we have derived pleaſure from theſe poems, imperfect as they are; and it is becauſe we hope for more, that we have dwelt with ſome minuteneſs upon the faults of theſe. In the mean time, we

counsel him to extend his poetical reading, as the peculiarities of any author's style are insensibly acquired by frequent perusal; and we advise him to correct the feebleness of versification into which his present model may perhaps lead him, by the study of Akenside, and, above all, of Shakspeare and Milton. If he be patient of correction, we may *almost* promise him that he will rise to eminence.

The monodramas resemble each other too much in their conclusion.

'I must away.—
For o'er yon mountains, soon the light-wing'd morn
Will peep irradiant, and the poor fisher,
Along the Hellespont's wide beach will spread
His chequer'd nets.—Then rise! my soul arise!
And wing thy speedy flight thro' airy realms,
To where Leander dwells.—Spirit belov'd!
I come!—I fly!—clasp—clasp—thy Hero!—' P. 50.

'But I must go—
For soon the sun-beams o'er yon towering hills,
Will sparkle cheerily.—The hunter then,
As o'er this plain he journies to the chase,
Will sorrow at the sight, and mark with tears,
Those warriors sleeping who so lately hurl'd,
Their javelins at the wolf.—
'Come! falchion come!
Taste thy old master's blood, in many a side
Of chieftain thou hast plung'd, and now perform
Thy duty.—Hark! the spirits of the slain,
Borne on the clouds ætherial, invoke
My lingering soul.—Ye spirits of the blest,
Bear me to happiness.—I come!—I fly!—' P. 57.

There is also too great a similarity between part of the poem of Rising Castle, and the commencement of the fourth sketch.

In one of the poems, the name of a village called *Snettisham* is introduced. We hope never to hear this unpleasing sound again in verse. If our author will look into the funereal odes of Dr. Watts (and they abound with beauties) he will see the ridiculous effect produced by the use of ill-sounding proper names. Would not Romeo and Juliet excite laughter, if the hero and heroine should address each other as Timothy and Tabitha?

Biographia Navalis; or impartial Memoirs of the Lives and Characters of Officers of the Navy of Great Britain, from the Year 1660 to the present Time; drawn from the most authentic Sources, and disposed in a Chronological Arrangement. By John Charnock, Esq. 8vo. Vol. V. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Faulder. 1797.

A NAVAL history is particularly interesting at the present period, when the unparalleled exploits of the British commanders have excited the extraordinary attention of Europe, and when the independence of the kingdom seems, more than at any former time, to depend on its navy. May that independence eternally subsist!

The preceding volumes of this work were noticed in our Review with some commendation, not unmixed with censure*. To that part of the continuation which is now before us, the same character is not inapplicable.

This volume contains an account of those individuals who became captains in 1740, or in any of the six following years. The first comparatively copious article is that which concerns the duke of Bolton, whom the biographer vindicates from unjust censures. A sketch of the life of vice-admiral Cotes immediately follows; and his character is represented in a very favourable light. Sir Thomas Frankland is praised for his activity, but is blamed with reason for his ill-treatment of commodore Pye. Admiral Holburne is not defended by the author, except in a borrowed note, from the censure to which he exposed himself by his dilatory conduct in the expedition to Cape Breton: but the following anecdote is recorded to his honour:

'During his passage to England, from America, we believe from Louisburg, in which, as it is well known, he encountered a most violent and tremendous tempest, he had observed a young officer particularly diligent, active, and useful on so trying an occasion; but at the same time had taken notice of his striking several of the common men whom he thought slow or remiss in their duty. When the tempest had in some measure subsided, he sent for the young gentleman into his cabin, and addressed him in the following manner: "Sir, I have observed, with the greatest pleasure, your diligence and exertions; I shall, in consequence of them, use my utmost endeavours to procure your promotion, but if I ever know that you again strike a seaman, from that moment I renounce you—you will lose all pretensions to my favour and friendship." P. 42.

In the life of sir Charles Hardy, who, as many of our read-

* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 247.

ers may remember, commanded the channel fleet at the time of the menacing appearance of the French and Spaniſh fleets before Plymouth, Mr. Charnock has introduced what he ſtyles 'a very exact and correct liſt of the enemy's force.' From this liſt it appears, that the ſhips of the line amounted to 67; a number not very different from that which we recollect to have been ſtated at the time; namely, 66. The guns, taken in the average, were above 72 to each ſhip. The French had 36 ſail of the line on this occaſion; the Spaniards, only 31. The Britiſh admiral had only 'forty-four ſhips of two and three decks, many of which were ill-manned, and in other reſpects unfit for ſervice:' for avoiding an engagement, therefore, he deſerved no blame. He is deſcribed by our author as 'brave, prudent, gallant, and enterpriſing—generous, mild, affable, and intelligent.'

Sir Thomas Pye is properly mentioned as

'an officer who affords an example of the poſſibility of paſſing through life, and attaining the higheſt rank in the ſervice, without the happineſs of experiencing a ſingle opportunity of diſtinguiſhing himſelf, except by thoſe qualities which are little valued by the million, though highly to be regarded and honoured by the diſcerning.' P. 112.

After accounts of ſir Charles Saunders, ſir Francis Geary, and other eminent officers, and of many who were leſs diſtinguiſhed, we meet with a long narrative of the life of lord Rodney, whoſe good fortune was at leaſt equal to his merit. Mr. Charnock ſays of this commander,

'Though he was condemned by ſome *, he experienced no harder fate than has befallen many of his very brave cotemporaries. Applauded, as we have ſeen him, by a much greater number, his merit muſt be in ſome degree admitted, as it enabled him to ſtem completely a torrent of cenſure, which though probably not entirely undeſerved, was at leaſt unwarrantably exaggerated, and induſtriouſly propagated by every art, ſome of them of the meaneſt kind, which the malignity of his enemies could invent.' P. 227.

'Though in private life he poſſeſſed a contempt of money, which led him into extravagancies and difficulties ſcarcely juſtifiable, or pitiable, yet thoſe very diſtreſſes appear to have carried with them a ſufficient puniſhment to render all poſthumous cenſure unneceſſary. Even his moſt violent opponents muſt admit, that no commander ever yet lived who had the good fortune to atchieve ſo many notable ſervices, or reduce and deſtroy, by the fleet under his immediate command, ſo great a number of the enemy's ſhips.' P. 228.

* For his conduct at St. Euſtatia, and ſome inſtances of ſuppoſed negligence.

The account of lord Keppel is eked out by the introduction of various papers, of which the fubftance might have been fatisfactorily given within a fhort compafs. The article is thus concluded:

'It will be almoft impoffible to attempt any delineation of his lordfhip's character without incurring cenfure, either from his admirers, or thofe of a different defcription. This will ever be the cafe with a man who, by unfortunately having merits and qualities attributed to him fuperior to thofe he really poffeffed, has induced a denial from his opponents of fuch virtues as they would without oppofition have unanimoufly allowed him the poffeffion of, had not his friends, by their imprudent attempt to raife him into fomething more than an hero, caufed the former to counterbalance extravagant panegyric by ill-founded cenfure. Prior to that ill-fated event, which all men muft admit was injurious to the country, the fervice, and his own fame, he was the idol of all parties and ranks, whether in or out of fervice: his bravery, his prudence, his activity, his diligence, he had happily afforded reiterated proofs of: a franknefs of difpofition, an affability, that trait of character ufually diftinguifhed by the appellation of good humour, had acquired him, among the feamen, a degree of love bordering almoft on adoration. To a character anonymoufly given of him at the time of his deceafe it is fubjoined, "That on every occafion he proved himfelf the friend of the meritorious, and the feaman's protector; and that no officer in the fervice poffeffed the love of the navy equal to himfelf."

'There was, however, a manifeft alteration, both in his difpofition and carriage, after his acceffion to the high rank he held in the miniftry, an alteration painfully obferved by his warmeft admirers; his former apparent opennefs and freedom of behaviour became, probably through neceffity, converted into referve; and his good nature funk into an habit of promifing thofe things which neither his power allowed, and, perhaps, on many occafions his inclination did not induce him to fulfil. This change caufed him, by infenfible degrees, to lofe much of that popularity he had before acquired; and it is by no means certain, if chance, or the political current of affairs had permitted him to continue much longer moving in the public fphere, he would have experienced * the fame mortifying reverfe which has, ever fince the exiftence of governments, occafionally attended the brighteft meteors of popularity. As it was, he lived not to acquire the dignity of being publicly hated, but paffed through the latter end of life unmolefted, unfatyrifed, and nearly unnoticed.

* The context requires, that the paffage—*it is by no means certain . . . . . he would have experienced*—fhould thus be altered: *it is probable that he would have experienced*, or *it is by no means certain that he would not have experienced*. R.

'With many excellent qualities poſſeſſed by this gentleman were certainly mingled ſome failings, a conſequence naturally attendant on the imperfection of human nature; and thoſe who wiſh to impreſs on poſterity conſummate perfection of character, are certainly guilty of premeditated flattery and falſehood.' P. 345.

Sir Peter Denis is highly praiſed: commodore Foreſt receives juſt encomium: the courage and the 'nice feelings' of captain Gardiner (who ſerved under admiral Byng, and was mortally wounded in the memorable action with the Foudroyant) are honourably mentioned: anecdotes are given of the 'high ſpirit' and 'rough pleaſantry' of admiral Gayton; and vice-admiral Byron is ſaid to have 'died with the univerſal and juſtly-acquired reputation of a brave and excellent officer, but of a man extremely unfortunate.'

Earl Howe is introduced among thoſe who were promoted to the rank of captain in the year 1746. His exploits and ſervices are regularly traced from that time to 1796, when he became 'admiral of the fleet, as being the ſenior officer on the liſt of admirals.' It is not probable that he will ever again enter into active ſervice.

Sir Hugh Palliſer is more mildly treated by this biographer than he would have been by a profeſſed advocate of Keppel; but it is admitted, that 'his friends may wiſh he had in ſome few points acted differently from *what he did*,' and that he 'poſſeſſed a warm temper.'

If this work ſhould be continued on the ſcale hitherto followed, it will prove very voluminous; but it might be rendered more acceptable to the public, by the omiſſion of many articles which are certainly unintereſting.

Dr. Johnſon's Table-Talk: containing Aphoriſms on Literature, Life, and Manners, with Anecdotes of diſtinguiſhed Perſons: ſelected and arranged from Mr. Boſwell's Life of Johnſon. 8*vo.* 6*s.* *Boards.* Dilly. 1798.

THE editor had begun to digeſt Mr. Boſwell's lively volume of memorabilia under general heads, before the death of that gentleman. The preſent compilation is the reſult. The form is more pleaſing; the materials are better arranged; and, by the omiſſion of many trifles, the whole is rendered more worthy of Dr. Johnſon. The volume has loſt ſome of its zeſt from want of novelty; but many of the opinions are ſo juſt, and are expreſſed in language ſo energetic, that it will always be intereſting.

As we followed Mr. Boſwell ſo minutely on his firſt appearance, we have little to obſerve on the preſent occaſion,

except to announce the volume, and give ſome ſpecimens of our moraliſt's appearance in his more contracted ſtate, when

> 'The huge great body that the giant bore
> Is vaniſh'd quite, and of that monſtrous maſs
> But little left.'———

We ſhall firſt tranſcribe ſome of the remarks under the head of 'education.'

'In one of Mr. Dilly's literary parties, ſomebody was mentioned as having wiſhed that Milton's "Tractate on Education" ſhould be printed along with his poems in the edition of the Engliſh Poets then going on. Johnſon ſaid, "It would be breaking in upon the plan; but would be of no great conſequence. So far as it would be any thing it would be wrong. Education in England has been in danger of being hurt by two of its greateſt men, Milton and Locke. Milton's plan is impracticable, and I ſuppoſe has never been tried; Locke's, I fancy, has been tried often enough, but is very imperfect; it gives too much to one ſide, and too little to the other: it gives too little to literature.

'On another occaſion he ſaid, "Where there is no education, as in ſavage countries, men will have the upper hand of women. Bodily ſtrength, no doubt, contributes to this; but it would be ſo, excluſive of that; for it is mind that always governs. When it comes to dry underſtanding, man has the better.' P. 72.

Speaking of the difference between reaſon and inſtinct, Johnſon

'repeated an argument, which is to be found in his "Rambler," againſt the notion that the brute creation is endowed with the faculty of reaſon: "birds build by inſtinct; they never improve; they build their firſt neſt as well as any one that they ever build." Goldſmith ſaid, "Yet we ſee if you take away a bird's neſt with the eggs in it, ſhe will make a ſlighter neſt, and lay again."—Johnſon. "Sir, that is becauſe at firſt ſhe has full time and makes her neſt deliberately. In the caſe you mention ſhe is preſſed to lay, and muſt therefore make her neſt quickly, and conſequently it will be ſlight."—*G.* "The nidification of birds is what is leaſt known in natural hiſtory, though one of the moſt curious things in it." P. 73.

The following obſervations on hoſpitality, under the title of 'Manners,' deſerve attention.

'Being aſked how far he thought wealth ſhould be employed in hoſpitality, he anſwered, "You are to conſider, that ancient hoſpitality, of which we hear ſo much, was in an uncommercial country, when men being idle were glad to be entertained at rich men's tables; but in a commercial country, in a buſy country, time becomes precious, and therefore hoſpitality is not ſo much valued. No doubt there is ſtill room for a certain degree of it; and a man

has a ſatisfaction in ſeeing his friends eating and drinking around him: but promiſcuous hoſpitality is not the way to gain real influence. You muſt help ſome people at table before others; you muſt aſk ſome people how they like their wine oftener than others. You therefore offend more people than you pleaſe. You are like the French ſtateſman who ſaid when he granted a favour, '*J'ai fait dix mécontens et un ingrat.*' Beſides, ſir, being entertained ever ſo well at a man's table, impreſſes no laſting regard or eſteem. No, ſir, the way to make ſure of power and influence is, by lending money confidentially to your neighbours at a ſmall intereſt, or perhaps at no intereſt at all, and having their bonds in your poſſeſſion."—Boſwell. "May not a man, ſir, employ his riches to advantage in educating young men of merit?"—Johnſon. "Yes, ſir, if they fall in your way; but if it be underſtood that you patronize young men of merit, you will be haraſſed with ſolicitations. You will have numbers forced upon you who have no merit; ſome will force them upon you from miſtaken partiality; and ſome from downright intereſted motives, without ſcruple; and you will be diſgraced. For hoſpitality as formerly practiſed, there is no longer the ſame reaſon; heretofore the poorer people were more numerous, and, from want of commerce, their means of getting a livelihood more difficult; therefore the ſupporting them was an act of great benevolence; now that the poor can find maintenance for themſelves, and their labour is wanted, a general undiſcerning hoſpitality tends to ill, by withdrawing them from their work to idleneſs and drunkenneſs. Then formerly rents were received in kind, ſo that there was a great abundance of proviſions in poſſeſſion of the owners of the lands, which, ſince the plenty of money afforded by commerce, is no longer the caſe.

"Hoſpitality to ſtrangers and foreigners in our country is now almoſt at an end, ſince, from the increaſe of them that come to us, there have been a ſufficient number of people that have found an intereſt in providing inns and proper accommodations, which is in general a more expedient method for the entertainment of travellers. Where the travellers and ſtrangers are few, more of that hoſpitality ſubſiſts, as it has not been worth while to provide places of accommodation. In Ireland there is ſtill hoſpitality to ſtrangers in ſome degree; in Hungary and Poland probably more." P. 106.

We will ſelect another paſſage, as it is curious.

'Mr. Beauclerk's great library was after his death ſold in London by auction. Mr. Wilkes ſaid, he wondered to find in it ſuch a numerous collection of ſermons, ſeeming to think it ſtrange that a gentleman of Mr. Beauclerk's character in the gay world, ſhould have choſen to have many compoſitions of that kind.—"Why, ſir (ſaid Johnſon), you are to conſider, that ſermons make a conſiderable branch of Engliſh literature; ſo that a library muſt be very imperfect if it has not a numerous collection of ſermons; and in all

collections, sir, the desire of augmenting it grows stronger in proportion to the advance in acquisition; as motion is accelerated by the continuance of the *impetus*. Besides, sir (looking at Mr. Wilkes with a placid but significant smile), a man may collect sermons with intention of making himself better by them. I hope Mr. Beauclerk intended, that some time or other that should be the case with him."

'Sir John Pringle had expressed a wish to have Dr. Johnson's opinion what were the best English sermons for style. Mr. B. one day took an opportunity of mentioning several to him. Atterbury?—Johnson. "Yes, sir, one of the best."—Boswell. "Tillotson?"—J. "Why not now. I should not advise a preacher at this day to imitate Tillotson's style; though I don't know; I should be cautious of objecting to what has been applauded by so many suffrages.—South is one of the best, if you except his peculiarities, and his violence, and sometimes coarseness of language. Seed has a very fine style; but he is not very theological.—Jortin's sermons are very elegant.—Sherlock's style too is very elegant, though he has not made it his principal study. And you may add Smallridge. All the latter preachers have a good style. Indeed, nobody now talks much of style: every body composes pretty well. There are no such unharmonious periods as there were a hundred years ago. I should recommend Dr. Clarke's sermons, were he orthodox. However, it is very well known where he was not orthodox, which was upon the doctrine of the Trinity, as to which he is a condemned heretic; so one is aware of it."—B. "I like Ogden's sermons on prayer very much, both for neatness of style and subtilty of reasoning."—J. "I should like to read all that Ogden has written."—B. "What I wish to know is, what sermons afford the best specimen of English pulpit eloquence."—J. "We have no sermons addressed to the passions that are good for any thing; if you mean that kind of eloquence."—A clergyman (whose name I do not recollect) asked, "Were not Dodd's sermons addressed to the passions?"—J. "They were nothing, sir, be they addressed to what they may."

'Sir Joshua Reynolds praised Mudge's sermons.—Johnson. "Mudge's sermons are good, but not practical. He grasps more sense than he can hold; he takes more corn than he can make into meal; he opens a wide prospect, but so distant, that it is indistinct. I love Blair's sermons. Though the dog is a Scotchman, and a presbyterian, and every thing he should not be, I was the first to praise them. Such was my candour (smiling)."—Mrs. Boscawen. "Such his great merit to get the better of all your prejudices."—J. "Why, madam, let us compound the matter; let us ascribe it to my candour and his merit." P. 343.

The heads, under which the different passages are arranged, seem not to have been very judiciously chosen, nor are they

very comprehensive; but the critic must be fastidious to whom this will give pain.

It has been observed, that the collectors of Johnson's anecdotes were not sufficiently careful of his 'fair fame.' When a quantity was procured, the whole was published. What he said in the moments of impatience, spleen, or pain, was not spared; and the effusions of ill nature, of which the reflections of the night led him to repent, were collected and published with avidity. An objection so often made should have had more influence with the present editor. Our recollection does not assist us in determining how much of this kind has been suppressed; but we see too much of it in this epitome. Should it ever reach another edition, the friends to the memory of Johnson will wish for the curtailment of some parts; and they can probably communicate as much as will compensate the diminution of the volume.

The Gentleman's and Connoisseur's Dictionary of Painters. Containing a complete Collection, and Account, of the most distinguished Artists, who have flourished in the Art of Painting at Rome, Venice, Naples, Florence, and other Cities of Italy; in Holland, Flanders, England, Germany, or France; from the Year 1250, *when the Art of Painting was revived by Cimabue, to the Year* 1767; *including above Five Hundred Years, and the number of Artists amounting to near One Thousand Four Hundred. Extracted from the most authentic Writers who have treated on the Subject of Painting, in Latin, Italian, Spanish, English, French, Low Dutch, &c. By the Rev. M. Pilkington, A. M. Vicar of Donabate and Portraine, in the Diocese of Dublin. A New Edition. To which is added, a Supplement: containing Anecdotes of the latest and most celebrated Artists, including several by Lord Orford; also Remarks on the present State of the Art of Painting, by James Barry, Esq. R. A. Professor of Painting to the Royal Academy.* 4to. 1*l.* 17*s.* *Boards.* Robinsons. 1798.

THOUGH a considerable period has elapsed from the first publication of this dictionary, which was noticed in our XXXth volume, it has continued to be a standard work, and almost the only performance of the kind, of an extent equal to the importance of the subject. A new edition, however, was long desired. We formerly observed, that the author's predilection for the Flemish painters had induced him to pass over, in a cursory manner, those of the Italian school; and we lamented that, as his characters of painters were not drawn from observation of their works, with the assistance of a cor-

rect scientific taste, but from numerous authors whose opinions differed, his criticisms were not always just or consistent. For this reason, many persons were induced to wish for a new work from the hands of an artist or a connoisseur, whose taste and extensive knowledge of paintings would have supplied the deficiencies of Mr. Pilkington's performance. Yet perhaps the public would not have greatly gained. Taste is often capricious: those who are allowed to be the best judges often value what others think meanly of, and, on the contrary, will sometimes despise what the generality of persons admire. A judicious collection from, and a comparison of the opinions of, the best authors, will often supply, by labour, what genius would not stoop to, or what taste alone would not afford. Mr. Pilkington's diligence has never been questioned; and his merits, on the whole, have been acknowledged. It might therefore have been improper to take the work out of his hands.

The supplement is our only object at this time. It contains accounts of some painters who escaped Mr. Pilkington's notice in the former edition, and of some whose deaths were subsequent to the date of that publication. We regret that some additions and occasional alterations were not made in the dictionary itself, that the names added are so few, and that the accounts of some of the artists are so barren. The new lives are those of Barret, who died in 1784; Battoni, who died in 1786; Cooper, 1743; Cotes, 1770; Gainsborough, 1788; Hayman, 1776; Highmore, 1780; Hogarth, 1764; Hudson, 1779; Jervas, 1739; Knapton, 1778; Louis and John Laguerre, 1721 and 1748; Lambert, 1765; Lens, 1741; Liotard; Mengs, 1779; Monamy, 1749; Mortimer, 1779; Nollikins, 1748; Phillips; Piazetta, 1754; Sir Joshua Reynolds, 1792; Richardson, 1745; Scott, 1772; Tavernier; Vernet, 1786; Viani of Bologna, 1711; Wilson, 1782; Wotton, 1765; Worlidge, 1766; Worsdale and Zincke, 1767.

Of these articles the execution is unequal; and, in general, the pictures want the glow and warmth of colouring, distinguishable in an artist who works *con amore*. The author seems to have given way, in the prosecution of his task, to listless *ennui*: his attention may have been distracted by other objects, or not eagerly engaged in those which were before him. Had the work been longer delayed, he might have availed himself of some judicious criticisms of Mr. Jackson on the works and manner of sir Joshua Reynolds and Mr. Gainsborough.

In selecting a specimen, we feel some difficulty. We are attracted by the amiable and ingenious Mortimer, by the eccentric Gainsborough, and the masterly Reynolds. We will

fix, however, on the concluding part of the account of the late president of the academy, as it is superior, in point of style, to the rest of the work, and deserves attention in other points of view.

'In many respects, both as a man and as a painter, sir Joshua Reynolds cannot be too much praised, studied, and imitated by every one who wishes to attain the like eminence. His incessant industry, never wearied into despondency by miscarriage, or elated into neglect by success, has already been noticed: in addition to which it may be further said, that when the man went abroad, he did not leave the painter at home: he practised his profession every where else, as well as in his painting room. All nature and all art was his academy; and his mind was constantly awake, ever on the wing, comprehensive, vigorous, discriminating and retentive. With taste to perceive all the varieties of the picturesque, judgment to select, and skill to combine what would serve his purpose; few have ever been empowered by nature to do more from the funds of his own genius, and none ever endeavoured more to take advantage of the labours of others, in making a splendid and useful collection of which no expence was spared: his house was filled to the remotest corners with casts from the antique pictures, statues, drawings, and prints, by the various masters of all the different schools and nations. Those he looked upon as his library, with this advantage, that they decorated at the same time that they instructed. They claimed his constant attention, objects at once of amusement, of study, and of competition.

'Beautiful and seducing as his style undoubtedly was, it cannot be recommended in so unreserved a manner as his industry both in study and practice. Colouring was evidently his first excellence, to which all others were more or less sacrificed; and though in splendor and brilliancy he was exceeded by Rubens and Paul Veronese, in force and depth by Titian and Rembrandt, and in freshness and truth by Velasquez and Vandyke, yet perhaps he possessed a more exquisite combination of all these qualities, and that peculiarly his own, than is to be found in the works of either of those celebrated masters.

'In history, he does not appear to possess much fertility of invention; as, whenever he has introduced a striking figure, it may commonly be traced and found to belong to some of his predecessors; and at the utmost, he can only be allowed the merit of skilful adaptation: but in portrait, the variety of his attitudes and backgrounds is unequalled by any painter, ancient or modern, and that variety is generally accompanied with grace in the turn of his figures and dignity in the airs of his heads.

'Drawing, as he himself candidly confesses, was the part of the art in which he was most defective; and from a desire perhaps to hide this defect, with an over-solicitude to produce a superabundant richness of effect, he was too frequently tempted to fritter his

lights and cut up his compoſition, particularly if it happened to be large, into too many parts: in his ſmaller hiſtories however, where he had only a few heads to manage, and in portraits, his compoſition, both with regard to the adaptation and contraſt of lines, and the diſpoſition of the maſſes of light and ſhadow, is often very excellent.

'In execution, though he wanted the firmneſs and breadth neceſſary to the higheſt ſtyle of art, the ſpirit and ſweetneſs of his touch was admirable, and would have been more remarkable had he been more a maſter of drawing; but not being readily able to determine his forms, he was obliged to go over and over the ſame part, till ſome of the vivacity of his handling was frequently loſt: his labour however was never wholly loſt, for he added to the force and harmony of his picture by every repetition.

'His ſtyle is preciſely that which in his diſcourſes he denominates the ornamental; and it is remarkable, that the beauties of this ſtyle, which it was his conſtant delight to contemplate, his conſtant endeavour to attain, and which he did attain to an almoſt unexampled degree of excellence, he treats in his writings with a ſeverity bordering on contempt; while the grand ſtyle, the beauties of which he probably never attempted, is ſpoken of in a manner approaching to idolatry: not only its ſevere and majeſtic ſimplicity, but its dryneſs, accidental hardneſs of manner, and inharmonious effect, proceeding evidently from want of ſkill in the artiſt, are excuſed, and almoſt inſiſted on as eſſential beauties. His theory indeed was nearly in all points in direct oppoſition to his practice, for he devoted his life almoſt entirely to portrait-painting; yet in his diſcourſes, after having diſcriminated the grand from the ſubordinate ſtyles, and aſſerted that the pretenſions of the profeſſor of the latter to the name of painter, are juſt what the epigrammatiſt and ſonnetteer have to the title of poet, he ſays, "In the ſame rank, or perhaps lower, is the cold painter of portraits." For this dereliction of his theory, he has, when it was hinted to him, been heard to make two excuſes: Firſt, "that he adapted his ſtyle to the taſte of his age." But ought not a great man, placed at the head of the art, to endeavour to lead and improve the taſte of the public, inſtead of being led and corrupted by it? Secondly, "that a man does not always do what he would, but what he can." This, whatever truth there may be in it, certainly comes with an ill grace from the mouth of one who conſtantly and confidently maintained in his writings, "that by exertion alone every excellence, of whatever kind, even taſte and genius itſelf, might be acquired."

'The fact is, perhaps, that he never truly felt the excellence of the grand ſtyle, of which his diſappointment at the firſt ſight of the works of Raffaelle in the Vatican, in addition to his violent oppoſition to it in his practice, is a ſtrong proof. He wrote from his head, but he painted from his heart; and the world probably loſes

nothing by his not having had an opportunity of putting his resolution in practice, of adopting the style of Michael Angelo, could he have been permitted to begin the world again; a declaration made evidently without a proper appreciation of his powers, which do not at all appear to have been calculated for excelling in that style.' P. 818.

The life of Mortimer is written with a warmth of affection for the man (and who that knew him did not feel that affection in the fullest glow?) though not with sufficient ardor for the artist. Little is said of Gainsborough, besides what is copied from one of the academic discourses of Reynolds.

Of Wilson, who was an excellent painter, Mr. Pilkington speaks with the warmth of an artist. We will extract a part of this article.

'It may be said of this artist, with great truth, *nil molitur ineptè.* His taste was so exquisite, and his eye so chaste, that whatever came from his easel bore the stamp of elegance and truth. The subjects he chose were such as did a credit to his judgment. They were the selections of taste; and whether of the simple, the elegant, or the sublime, they were treated with an equal felicity. Indeed, he possessed that versatility of power, as to be one minute an eagle sweeping the heavens, and the next, a wren twittering a simple note on the humble thorn.

'His colouring was in general vivid and natural; his touch, spirited and free; his composition, simple and elegant; his lights and shadows, broad and well distributed; his middle tints in perfect harmony, while his forms in general produced a pleasing impression. Wilson has been called the English Claude; but how unjustly, so totally different their style! To draw a parallel between the two artists, we should say, that the Frenchman too often fatigues by the detail: he enters too far into the minutiæ of nature, —he painted her littlenesses. Wilson, on the contrary, gives a breadth to nature, and adopts only those features that more eminently attract attention. Claude, proud of shewing to the world the truth of his eye, in regard to the aërial perspective, produces a number of petty parts, paltry projections, such as hedges, banks, hillocks, &c. to prove his power in a certain department of painting, which, though far from contemptible, is very distant from the higher orders of the art. Claude introduces, at times, groups of unmeaning and uninteresting figures; while Wilson introduces a paucity, but such as are not only appropriate to the scene, but form a part of the composition. The mind of Wilson was that of a classic; the mind of Claude, of a mechanic, dead to the energies of classic sensibility. The pencil of Claude was capable only of describing the general appearances of nature; that of Wilson,

to clothe them with elegance and grandeur. Claude, poſſeſſing no abſtract idea of beauty, was confined to the individual merit of the ſcene; Wilſon, on the contrary, gifted with the charming ideal, could faſcinate by combination. Claude was a pretty, ſimple, country girl; Wilſon was a beauty of a higher order, commanding the graces, and uniting them to ſimplicity. Claude ſometimes painted grand ſcenes, but without a mind of grandeur; Wilſon, on the contrary, could infuſe a grandeur into the meaneſt objects. Claude, when he drew upon the bank of his own ideas, was a mere caſtrato in the art; witneſs the landing of Æneas in Italy. How poverty-ſtruck the ſcene!—an enterprize deſtitute of motion—a few clumſy veſſels, with a few figures, more reſembling Dutch hoys unlading at a London wharf, than ſhips arrived with an army, to form the Roman empire, and give a race to immortality. Wilſon, on the contrary, was a Hercules. When his ſubject was grand, he clothed it with thunder; witneſs his Celadon and Amelia, his Niobe, &c. To compare their works that demanded imagination, were to draw a parallel between ſtrength and imbecillity, the two miſerable ſtatues of Johnſon and Howard in St. Paul's cathedral, and the labours of Praxiteles. Claude was rather the plain and minute hiſtorian of landſcape; Wilſon was the poet.

'It is tobe regretted, that Wilſon and Reynolds, the two leviathans of the art, and congenial in their painting powers, ſhould have entertained a jealouſy of each other. But a coldneſs, bordering on contempt, betrayed itſelf too often in both; in ſhort, they could ſcarcely be civil; witneſs the following little anecdote: at a convivial meeting of the royal academicians, ſir Joſhua (who perceived not Wilſon at his elbow), after launching out into encomiums on the merits of Gainſborough, declared that he was the firſt landſcape-painter in England. "Not the firſt landſcape-painter," replied Wilſon, "but every judge muſt allow Mr. Gainſborough to be the firſt portrait-painter." The aſſertions of both were deſtitute of candour and truth; at the ſame time it muſt be confeſſed, that Gainſborough's orb moved in a ſphere not much inferior to theirs.' P. 823.

To the dictionary are ſubjoined Mr. Barry's remarks on the preſent ſtate of the art of painting. Theſe obſervations are well known, and need not detain us. But we cannot conclude our article without commending this volume as a valuable repoſitory of facts and obſervations on the ſubject of the arts and artiſts—of information ſcattered in numerous volumes, and (in many of them) interrupted by trifling diſquiſitions or unimportant anecdotes.

Geographical Illustrations of Scottish History, containing the Names of Places mentioned in Chronicles, Histories, Records, &c. with Corrections of the corrupted Names, and Explanations of the difficult and disputed Points, in the historical Geography of Scotland; the Names being alphabetically arranged, with References to their Position in the historical Map of Scotland, which accompanies the Work: together with a compendious Chronology of the Battles to the Year 1603; *collected from the best Authorities, historical and geographical, by David Macpherson.* 4*to.* 10*s.* 6*d. sewed.* Nicol. 1796.

THE want of an accurate geographical accompaniment of the history of Scotland has long been a ground of inconvenience and complaint. The idea of providing a remedy for this deficiency was long entertained by Mr. Macpherson; and the present publication is the fruit of his diligent researches.

The work and the map are so closely connected, that many parts of the former are mere names, attended only with references to the latter. Other names are followed by short *memoranda*; but some of the articles are more copious, because they relate to points which have been frequently or strongly contested.

The longest article in the work is that which respects the isles.

'In these islands' (it is said) 'the Scots appear to have effected their first British settlements about the middle of the third century under Riada or Reuda, whose name perhaps remains in Rothisay, the ancient appellation of Bute, though afterwards restricted to the capital of it. About the year 500 the isles on the west side of Ergyl appear to have been subject to Enegus, the son of Erk, and brother of Fergus. It was in Hyona, one of these isles, that Columba established the seat of his spiritual empire, whence religion, learning, and science, such as they were then known, were disseminated, not only over the adjacent isles, but also over Scotland, and a great part of England.

'As the possession of islands must ever follow the dominion of the sea, all the islands adjacent to Scotland were frequently plundered, and (excepting the few small ones in the Forth) at length, about the year 900, completely occupied by piratical rovers, and exiles from Norway, who were unwilling to submit to Harold Harfagur, then established monarch of all the petty kingdoms of Norway. Harold some time after made an expedition against Orkney and Hialtland (or Scetland), which he subdued, and erected them into an iarldom (or earldom) to be held of the crown of Norway, which he bestowed on one of his nobles and his heirs.

He also sent an officer, called Ketil (whose ample possessions in Norway he wanted to seize for himself) to subdue the islands on the west side of Scotland, and to govern them in his name. Ketil, having established himself, and conciliated the affections of the principal people of the islands, set up for an independent king; and his successors during many centuries retained the regal title and dignity, generally acknowleging however the feudal superiority of the kings of Norway, and fixing the seat of their little maritime empire in Mann..

'Under the government of these Norwegian princes the isles appear to have been very flourishing. They were crowded with people; the arts were cultivated; and manufactures were carried to a degree of perfection, which was then thought excellence.'

Mr. Macpherson is of opinion, that the *Lothene* of the Saxon Chronicle did not include any part of modern England, though some historians and antiquaries speak of that province as having been the same with Northumberland, or as having included this county. He endeavours to prove, that the name in question was applied to a part of the country between the Forth and the Tweed; that Scotland was long considered as bounded to the southward by the former of those rivers; and that, though *England* is mentioned in the Chronicle as the territory within which Lothene was comprehended, it was that part of the country of the Angles which lay to the northward of the Tweed. But his arguments are not decisive; and we are rather inclined to adopt the opinion of those who have extended the boundaries of Lothene to the river Tyne.

When he treats of the Picts, he does not enter into any discussion respecting their origin; but what he says of them may be pronounced to be correct.

'When the Romans first passed the Forth, this nation appears to have possessed most of the country beyond it. Notwithstanding the praises heaped upon Agricola, it is certain, that he made no conquest of any part of the Pichtish territory, which remained free from the Roman yoke till about A. D. 140, when the east and middle parts of the country from the Forth to the Farar were reduced to the form of a Roman province. This subjection however lasted but a very short time; for about 170 the Pichts had the honour to lop off the first branch of the overgrown empire of the Romans by expelling them from their scarcely formed province of Vespasiana. They afterwards took possession of the greatest part of the province of Valentia, which lay between the two Roman walls; and it seems probable, that they spread as far south as the Humber. All the various divisions of them to the northward of the Twede and the Sulway have at different times been united to the Scottish kingdom.'

Of the name of *Scotland*, and the territory to which it has at different times been applied, he thus speaks:

'The different applications of this name have been the source of much confusion in history, and of much indecent altercation. In ancient times the ruling people in Ireland were called Scots, as appears from the writings of St. Patrick; and from them the island itself was called Scotia by those who wrote in Latin: but to the best of my knowledge no such names are used by any Irish, Welsh, or English authors, who wrote in their own languages. The name of Scots also belonged to the people, who occupied the shirresdom of Ergyl, with the isles on both sides of it, under the conduct of Riada, or Reuda, about the middle of the third century; though it does not appear, that their territory has ever been called Scotia. Neither does it appear, though the name of Scottis has been extended in after ages to all the Highlanders, and to their language, even exclusive of the Lowlanders [Wynt. VII. v. 30; IX. xiiii. xvii.] that ever the name of Scotland was peculiarly appropriated to their part of the country. After the union of the Scots and Pichts the name of Scotland gradually superseded that of Albany, which, however, was not quite obsolete about the year 1300. The name of Scotland was used in the following acceptations: 1. The country between the Scottis sè, or Wattyr of Forth, and the Mounth. 2. From the Forth to the Spey. 3. All the country north of the Forth, except Ergyl. 4. All the country north of the Forth, including Ergyl; and this was the extent of the jurisdiction of the justiciary of Scotland, the remainder of the kingdom on the south side of the Forth being under the justiciary of Louthian. 5. All the Scottish dominions on both sides of the Forth; which is the present acceptation of the name.'

He is too superficial in the notice which he has taken of the kingdom of Strathcluyd. Even within the narrow limits which he prescribed to himself for his undertaking, we might have expected a longer account. A part of his sketch follows:

'The several British tribes between the two Roman walls, who in the latter ages of the empire were called by the general name of Mæatæ, appear to have been crowded into the country of the Damnonii by the encroachments of the Northumbrians from the East and South. Thus compressed into a compact territory, and possessing the strong frontier castle of Alcluyd or Dumbarton, and apparently that of Striveline, they remained independent of the more powerful neighbouring kingdoms of the Scots, Pichts, and Northumbrians, for several centuries, during which they appear to have occupied Kyle, Cuningham, and the shirresdoms of Lanark, Dunbarton, and Striveline; though it is not probable,

that their boundaries remained fixed during all the ages of their existence. 'There is no doubt, that this little kingdom, surrounded by jealous neighbours, and sometimes plundered by foreign invaders, experienced many vicissitudes of fortune, which are lost to history. After the balance of power (to use a modern phrase) was destroyed in North Britain by the union of the Scots and Pichts, Strathcluyd appears to have sometimes courted an alliance with England; but was more frequently connected with, and at last entirely dependent upon, Scotland, though still under the nominal sovereignty of its own kings.'

The introduction of the English town of Workington was unnecessary; but the author thought that it had some connection with his subject, as being

'the first English ground trodden by the unfortunate queen Mary, when, relying on fair promises, and seemingly kind invitations, she threw herself upon the *friendship* of her worthy cousin Elizabeth.'

For his antiquarian labours, Mr. Macpherson deserves the thanks of his countrymen; for, though he may have erred in some particulars, his work will prove very useful to the readers of the history of North Britain. His map, we may add, is neatly and correctly executed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS.

An Enquiry into the Feasibility of the supposed Expedition of Buonaparté to the East. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Nicol. 1798.

THE result of Buonaparte's expedition still remains an object of anxious curiosity. Will he content himself with an establishment in Egypt, or aim at the destruction of our influence in India? The latter object is considered as ridiculous by Mr. Irwin, who, if the enterprising general should be so mad as to make the attempt, and to take one of the three 'routes of Suez, Busrah, or Ispahan,' endeavours to 'account for his certain failure in whichever he may adopt.' The difficulties are, without doubt, very great, and suffi-

cient to appall all the writers in the closet; but the palm of glory is not to be won by puny efforts, nor is the conqueror of Italy a Quixote to run headlong into unnecessary danger. If the failure of the expedition be as certain as it is said to be in this pamphlet, we must deny to the French every degree of merit in their plans; for there is not a single observation which has not occurred to every one at all acquainted with the routes to India. Buonaparte is here represented as a 'vain-glorious warrior,' and as one whose 'vanity and presumption, in epistolary composition, have not often been equaled.' The sultan Tippoo is the tyrant of Mysore; and our troops in the east are able to 'defeat the mad designs, and punish the perfidy, of his boasted allies the French republicans, with Buonaparte at their head.' It is easy to flourish with the pen; but it is not wise to treat an enemy with too much contempt.

Reply to Irwin: or, the Feasibility of Buonaparte's supposed Expedition to the East, exemplified. By an Officer in the Service of the East India Company. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1798.

On the subject of the expedition to Egypt, the language of this officer is more becoming than that of his antagonist.

'If we decline to applaud and admire that spirit of heroic enterprise which has hitherto marked the brilliant career of Buonaparte, because he is the enemy of our country; or appear insensible to that superior merit in others, which we are willing to magnify when applicable to ourselves; let us, if it be only in common justice to our country, avoid the fatal error of plunging into the gulf of delusion, by hoodwinking our senses in spite of undeniable facts, and influenced by a spirit of national pride or patriotism in refusing the tribute of merit wherever it may be deserved; let us, I say, at least recollect, that the most direful consequences have arisen from holding an enemy in contempt.' P. 24.

With regard to Mr. Irwin's grand difficulty, the want of shipping in the Red Sea, it is observed, that a number of vessels nearly sufficient may be procured by the French in that quarter by force or purchase; that the ships captured in the eastern seas may be brought to Egypt for this expedition; and that a great number of foreign ships will assist for hire in the undertaking. Indeed, can it be supposed that, if our colonies in India are to be attacked, the French have not made the necessary preparations for transporting their troops from the isthmus of Suez? It is possible that the same good fortune may attend them in their next embarkation, and that, having eluded our squadrons, they may leave their ships only to add to the triumphs of the English. The energy and good fortune of Buonaparte will prevent the prudent from prophesying too decisively of the end of his career.

Buonaparte in Egypt: or, an Appendix to the Enquiry into his supposed Expedition to the East. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Nicol. 1798.

The obfervations which occur in this pamphlet are more recommended by the drefs in which they appear, than by their weight or profundity.

Obfervations on the Expedition of General Buonaparte to the Eaft; and the Probability of its Succefs confidered. To which is added a brief Sketch of the prefent State of Egypt; an Hiftorical Account of Alexandria; the two Harbours of that City accurately delineated, its former Splendour and prefent State contrafted; with fome Remarks on its local Importance fhould it become the Mart of the Eaft: together with a few Particulars relating to the Navigation of the Red Sea. By the Editor of the Hiftory of Peter III. and Catherine II. of Ruffia. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cawthorn. 1798.

The remarks on the expedition are un-important; but a good defcription is given of the ancient and modern ftate of Alexandria; and the fketch of the population, manners, religion, foil, produce, animals, and government of Egypt, may be found ufeful.

Two hiftoric Differtations. I. On the Caufes of the minifterial Seceffion, A. D. 1717. II. On the Treaty of Hanover, concluded A. D. 1725. With fome prefatory Remarks, in Reply to the Animadverfions of the Rev. William Coxe, in his Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. By William Belfham. 8vo. 3s. Robinfons. 1798.

The publication of Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole gave rife to the prefent political production, in which a well-known writer inveftigates fome points that had before fallen under his notice. The 'prefatory remarks' tend to the vindication of Mr. Belfham from the objections made by Mr. Coxe to particular paffages of the Memoirs of the Kings of Great-Britain of the Houfe of Brunfwick. In the preface, the objector is treated with no fmall degree of contempt; and, in the fecond differtation, he is by no means fpared.

The caufes of the feceffion of Walpole and fome of his friends from the intereft of the ruling party, appear to have been both of a perfonal and political nature—*perfonal*, inafmuch as the feceders, being felfifh and ambitious, were difgufted at the fuperior influence of other advifers of the king—and *political*, as involving a real difference, in point of principle, on the fubject of continental connexions. Thefe caufes our author intelligently examines; but we do not think that much is added to our former knowledge of the grounds of the feceffion.

The treaty of Hanover is placed by Mr. Belfham in a proper

light; and the biographer of Walpole is clearly confuted. The result of the inquiry is thus stated:

'Upon a general review of the evidence here adduced, is it possible seriously to maintain, "that the treaty of Hanover originated," as Mr. Coxe pretends, "in an exclusive regard for the interests of Great Britain?" By a series of unjust and impolitic measures, the result of a determination at all events to retain possession of the provinces of Bremen and Verden, the three great powers of Austria, Russia, and Spain were made the inveterate enemies of Britain. In order to resist the designs of so potent a confederacy, the court of London was reduced to the necessity of forming an anti-coalition, and of throwing itself with its whole immense weight, into the scale of France, in opposition to the house of Austria, its natural ally. But if the interests of Great Britain, and not the aggrandizement of the electorate of Hanover, had been the real object of the king of England, he would undoubtedly have restored Bremen and Verden to Sweden; he would have withdrawn his guarantee of Sleswick from Denmark, he would have relinquished his claims upon Mecklenburg, and have acceded to the edict of the Pragmatic Sanction. The confederacy of Vienna would by this means have been at once dissolved; the enmity of the emperor would have been converted into friendship and gratitude; the Ostend company would have been annihilated, and all things would have reverted to their natural and antient state. In lieu of which obvious and rational policy, the king of England, resolute to retain his usurpations and to enforce his claims, strengthened himself on all sides in order to resist the combination of Vienna; and incurred the imminent risque of involving Europe in a new and more destructive war than that recently terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, rather than abandon his favourite project of engrossing the entire dominion of the circle of Lower Saxony. Fortunately, the pacific counsels of Walpole, assisted and confirmed by various secret co-adjutors, were not unavailingly employed in counteracting, and ultimately gained a complete ascendency over the wild and extravagant projects of Townshend. On the most accurate and severe investigation of this part of his public conduct, sir Robert Walpole stands not only clear of reproach, but he is entitled to the highest approbation and applause.' P. 84.

The conclusion of the pamphlet relates, in part, to recent times. The conduct of Mr. Pitt is strongly censured; and a curious quotation from D'Avenant is given, many parts of which, respecting the characters and proceedings of ministers, have the appearance of prophecy.

State of the Country in the Autumn of 1798. *8vo.* 1*s.* Wright. 1798.

In this pamphlet, we meet with a highly-coloured picture of the

ſtate of our affairs: but all the features of the copy do not reſemble the original. The author of the ſketch is ſo confident and ſanguine, that we may pronounce him an abſolute Quixote. *The deliverance of Europe*, of which his friends ſpeak in ſuch pompous terms, is only *a part* of his ſcheme; for we ought, he thinks, to aim at the reſcue of the whole civiliſed world.

'As long' (he ſays) 'as it ſhall appear to be the ſyſtem of France to ſpread deſtruction over every part of the civilized world, to cruſh every government that diſputes her will, and to meaſure her rights only by her power, it is a duty we owe to God, to ourſelves, and to the world at large, to employ our whole ſtrength in oppoſing her deſigns, and to aſſiſt and ſupport every ſtate which is deſirous, however late, of taking up arms in the common defence. We hope it will not be our fate to contend alone; but whatever be the conduct of other countries, our determination is taken. They may crouch.—They may temporize.—They may ſubmit.—We know our duty.—We feel as Chriſtians and as men. In the iſſue of the preſent conteſt, the exiſtence of all religion and all government, and the rights of human nature, are involved. We truſt we have the ſpirit, we know we have the power, to defend them.' P. 31.

A Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Cholmondeley on the Civil Policy of the Ancients. By the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Secretary for the Library, and Chaplain to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales. To which is prefixed an Enumeration of the Confiſcations, &c. of the French Nation, extracted from Official Documents. Tranſlated from the German. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1799.

The only valuable parts of this pamphlet are the enumeration of the confiſcations, and the liſt of the countries conquered by France, which have all the appearance of accuracy, and ought to be in the hands of every man who values the independence of his country. The total loſs of Europe, in money, goods, and territory, ſince the commencement of the war, is repreſented as exceeding one thouſand ſix hundred and ninety-one millions ſterling. Of this ſum £. 143,290,707 are ſet down as contributions or requiſitions in ready money. May it not be aſked what has become of this immenſe ſum? The French, it appears from their late financial reports, are poor; and the conquered nations are ſtill poorer. If there be not a miſcalculation in this buſineſs, it has the air of a paradox.

The Conduct of the Admiralty, in the late Expedition of the Enemy to the Coaſt of Ireland, as ſtated by Miniſters, in the Houſe of Commons, on the third of March, 1797: with an authentic Copy of the Official Papers on that Subject, ordered to be printed by Parliament. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1797.

This defence wears a plauſible aſpect. It tends to eſtabliſh two

points; 1. that the orders given, and the meaſures taken in obedience to thoſe orders, were ſuch as could leave no ground for blame, and would, on the contrary, afford a complete juſtification of the admiralty, and of the officers employed; and, 2. that, calculated as thoſe orders and thoſe meaſures were to enſure (as far as human judgment and foreſight could effect) the defeat of the deſigns of the French, by the deſtruction of their armament, that deſtruction was only prevented by the ſtate of the weather. Many documents are added to this defence, for the peruſal of thoſe who wiſh to enter into a minute ſcrutiny of the conduct of the admiralty on that important occaſion.

Now, or never: or, Britain's Peace in her own Power. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.

This pamphlet appears to have been written in the firſt paroxyſm of joy excited by lord Nelſon's victory. In that rapturous hour, the author ſaw the power of France humbled, and all nations riſing againſt her to deſtroy that *principle* which prevents a general peace. But ſubſequent events have not realiſed the proſpects of this *tyro* in politics.

PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Neceſſity of an incorporate Union between Great Britain and Ireland proved from the Situation of both Kingdoms. With a Sketch of the Principles upon which it ought to be formed. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1799.

The firſt ſentence of this pamphlet contains an aſſertion which we were the more ſurpriſed to find, as the author cannot affect an ignorance of its total want of foundation. He ſays that 'government has hitherto remained ſilent upon the ſubject of an union' (which, indeed, might have been the caſe when he began to write), and that the idea of an union '*originates with the public*, and can be attributed to no other cauſe than a general conviction, that ſome arrangement muſt be formed between the countries to enſure their joint proſperity and mutual good underſtanding.' Now, beſides that this is not a true ſtatement, it is not neceſſary for his purpoſe that it ſhould be true. If it were, he ought not to cenſure, as he has done in ſtrong terms, the meetings which have been holden for the diſcuſſion of the meaſure before its introduction into parliament; for, if one part of the *public* may propoſe a meaſure, another may ſurely diſcuſs it.

The main object of the pamphlet is to prove, that the preſent ſyſtem is inſufficient to promote the proſperity and enſure the tranquillity of the empire, and that an incorporating union, forming the two nations into one kingdom, ſubject to the ſame laws, and

governed by the same legislature, can alone accomplish those salutary effects. In support of these propositions, the writer maintains, that the arrangement of 1782, by giving Ireland independence, furnished her parliament with the means of dissenting from the British government, and that, although her ministers are appointed and her measures guided by the British cabinet, an occasion may probably occur, when the Irish parliament shall claim, *bonâ fide*, that independence which it now enjoys virtually, or rather nominally; and he instances the regency as a case in point. He also contends, that the present system is not likely to proceed, because, since the period above-mentioned, there has been a constant endeavour in Ireland to depart farther and farther from the connexion with Great-Britain. 'The fatal experience' (he adds) 'of eighteen years is surely sufficient to convince us, that if the old arrangement (*i. e.* previous to 1782) sacrificed the freedom of Ireland to the union of the kingdoms, the new has sacrificed that union to the existence of her separate legislature.'

In demonstrating his grand object, the author considers the objections which may be offered: 1. that an incorporating union would destroy the very name of Ireland as a nation; 2. that it would annihilate her government and her independence; 3. that it would greatly increase the preponderance of English influence, as every lucrative or important office would be conferred on Englishmen, the dependents of ministers; 4. that the number of absentees would be greatly augmented; 5. that Dublin, the present seat of the legislature, would be reduced to the state of an inconsiderable village; 6. that Ireland would be involved in the debts of Great-Britain, and her taxes would increase in an enormous degree.

The first objection appears trifling; and it is not answered with the most profound gravity. As to the second, our author has certainly settled the question in a manner which every *Englishman* will think convincing: but it is a question of prejudice, and, as Mr. Burke said on another occasion, 'we love prejudices, and love them because they are prejudices.' Besides, we do not think his language in this place likely to conciliate the Irish; for he scarcely avoids touching upon what has since been called, in plain terms, a 'beggarly independence.'

The other objections are more easily evaded; and, indeed, they depend upon the arrangements which may take place, rather than upon the discussion of the principal subject. In the same light we consider the remarks of this writer on the formation of the united legislature, and upon some other points.

All collateral matters will be more properly discussed, when the Irish shall consent to listen to the preliminaries; and, if they are disposed to make themselves fully acquainted with the arguments that are strongest in favour of an union, they may have recourse with advantage to this comprehensive pamphlet.

A Letter to Joſhua Spencer, Eſq. on an Union, by William Johnſon, Eſq. Barriſter at Law. 8*vo.* 6*d.* Hatchard. 1798.

Mr. Spencer's Thoughts on an Union * were among the firſt replies to the pamphlet ſuppoſed to be written by Mr. Cooke. He endeavoured to prove, that, 'circumſtanced as Ireland and England now are, with reſpect to their own particular internal concerns, their mutual relation to each other as connected kingdoms, and the particular ſtate of Europe at this moment, no poſſible union of the legiſlature of the two countries can be for the advantage of the former.' In anſwer to this, Mr. Johnſon obſerves, that Mr. Spencer has with-holden the proceſs of inveſtigation by which only he could arrive at ſuch a concluſion; that he has talked of the honourable pride, the temper, and the feelings of an independent nation, of the loſs of national honour, and the increaſe of public burthens; but that he has not ſhown in what way the pride of the Iriſh would be wounded, their honour injured, or their burthens augmented, &c. The writer of this letter, therefore, confines himſelf principally to theſe points; and he argues with ſome force in favour of *thinking* as preferable to that *feeling* or *ſentiment* in which the Iriſh have been accuſtomed to indulge themſelves. One good effect of the union, he ſuppoſes, would be to deſtroy that idea of *diſtinctneſs* which is perpetually preſent to the minds both of the Britiſh and Hibernian nation, and which at preſent ſeems to weaken, and might at length tend to diſſolve, the connexion between the countries. He repreſents alſo in a ſtrong point of view the advantages reſulting from the union, which might render it ſafe to remove the complaints of the catholics by emancipation; a favour which cannot be extended to them under the preſent circumſtances without a riſque of danger, almoſt approaching to certainty. On other queſtions which have ariſen from the general one, Mr. Johnſon only touches curſorily. The principles which he has laid down, however, appear to be the well-founded reſult of unbiaſſed obſervation and free inquiry.

Letters on the Subject of Union, in which Mr. Jebb's "Reply" is conſidered; and the Competence of Parliament to bind Ireland to an Union is aſſerted; by a Barriſter and Member of Parliament. 8*vo.* 2*s.* Wright. 1799.

The firſt three of theſe letters are addreſſed to Mr. Saurin, an Iriſh barriſter, and are directed againſt the precipitation with which the gentlemen of the bar entered into reſolutions againſt the union, without knowing of what kind it was to be, or whether it would be attended with the loſs of independence or conſtitution ſo much dreaded. The other letters are addreſſed to Richard Jebb Eſq. whoſe pamphlet came lately before us (See p. 94. of this volume).

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* See our XXIVth Vol. p. 456.

Their principal aim is to aſſert the competence of parliament to bind Ireland to an union: and this is argued upon the authority of many eminent writers, particularly Coke and Blackſtone. 'If they are right, our legiſlature is abſolute: and if abſolute, of courſe it is competent to enact union.' But, however competent parliament may be to vote a meaſure of this nature, our author does not loſe ſight of the expediency of attending in ſome meaſure to the voice of the people; and he therefore concludes his pamphlet with an addreſs to the catholics, pointing out the advantages which they may reap from the union.

There is much good ſenſe in theſe letters; but the arguments are not always ſo perſpicuous as may be requiſite in an appeal to inferior underſtandings.

The Union. Ceaſe your Funning. 8vo. 6*d.* Debrett. 1799.

This is an ironical attack upon the author of 'Arguments for and againſt the Union.' For many years, perhaps, no political topic has been handled with equal force of humour. The author aſſumes the point that Mr. Cooke is an united Iriſhman, in the diſguiſe of a miniſterial ſecretary; and, on that aſſumption, he accounts for the imputation of incapacity which it has been lately the faſhion to throw upon the Iriſh government, and hopes that ſuch *jokers* will *ceaſe their funning!*

The Subſtance of the Speech of Robert Peel, Eſq. in the Houſe of Commons, on Thurſday, the 14*th of February,* 1799, *on the Queſtion for receiving the Report of the Committee on the Reſolutions reſpecting an Incorporate Union with Ireland. With a correct Copy of the Reſolutions, as they were finally amended by the Houſe of Commons.* 8vo. 6*d.* Stockdale. 1799.

Mr. Peel urges the common arguments in favour of the union; but he has, like many other perſons, neglected to conſider the real arguments againſt that meaſure. The queſtion is, how far the conſtitution of this country can be preſerved, when the introduction of a hundred new members from Ireland ſhall have rendered the influence of the crown ſuperior to all reſtraint. One great inſtance of union has been tried; and, in general, the Scottiſh members have followed one line of conduct, whence it is natural to conclude that an importation of Iriſh members will be attended with a ſimilar effect.

FINANCE.

Obſervations on the Credit and Finances of Great Britain; in Reply to the Thoughts of the Earl of Lauderdale, and the Appeal of Mr. Morgan. By Daniel Wakefield, Eſq. 8vo. 1s. 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1797.

The earl of Lauderdale, Mr. Morgan, and Mr. Wakefield, diſ-

fer in their calculations by many millions. Mr. Wakefield talks of flippant eloquence, intentional misrepresentations, extravagant, fanciful, and delusive calculations, a conspiracy to delude the public, &c. of which, according to him, his opponents are guilty; and he comforts us with the idea, that the peace establishment will be only 5,216,800l. per annum; censuring lord Lauderdale and Mr. Morgan for having included in their estimates the interest of the national debt. Such a quibble does not deserve a moment's notice; but we regret that the complicated state of our finances should render it impossible to give a satisfactory decision respecting the points in dispute between this writer and his antagonists, whose merits in questions of calculation are generally acknowledged.

A Measure productive of substantial Benefits to Government, the Country, the public Funds, and to Bank Stock. Respectfully submitted to the Governors, Directors, and Proprietors of the Bank of England. By Simeon Pope. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardsons. 1799.

After wading through four pages of pompous inanity, we were happy to see, at the beginning of the next page, these words.— 'In plain English, France soon felt,' &c. We were then in hopes of meeting with more reasonable remarks; but we soon found the writer again upon his stilts, and were lost in admiration of the grandeur of his conceptions, which are no less dignified than his stile. He appears also to be a sagacious prophet; for, if the tax on income should be continued three or four years, he foresees that the prosperity of the country will be 'greater than ever was known.' According to his principles of finance, we should overflow with wealth, if the minister would be kind enough to take nine tenths of our income. Though Mr. Pope might flatter us with a prospect of great advantages from such a measure, his rhetoric will perhaps be lost on the directors of the bank, to whom he recommends the following

'Plan for giving energy to the important measures of government, by preventing a further funded loan in the present year.

'Let the bank of England (under the sanction of parliament) advance to government, this year, the sum of ten millions, at an interest of four per cent. and payable in ten instalments, on the security or credit of the general income tax, for the ensuing year 1800—then to be optional in the bank proprietors to extend, or not, the loan to the year 1801—and so to every succeeding year as long as the tax shall exist.'

A Proposal for liquidating 66,666,666⅔ of the Three per Cents, by converting the Land-Tax into a permanent Annuity; with cursory Observations. Humbly submitted to both Houses of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.

The sale of the land-tax since the publication of this tract, the

tax upon income, and the prospect of other taxes, render this pamphlet less interesting than it might otherwise have been. Many of our readers, however, may wish to compare the effects of the act for the redemption of the land-tax with the previous conjectures on the eventual benefits of such a measure.

Adam Smith, Author of an Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations; and Thomas Paine, Author of the Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance. A critical Essay, published in all Languages. Germany.

Adam Smith, Auteur des Recherches sur la Richesse des Nations; et Thomas Payne, Auteur de la Décadence et de la Ruine prochaine des Finances de l'Angleterre. Essai de Critique, publié dans toutes les Langues.

Of this critical essay, published in all languages, we have seen only the English and the French. The English translation was executed by a foreigner; and it is full of foreign idioms. In the French the author may be better understood; but we admire his zeal more than his knowledge of the world, in the trouble he has taken to correct among all nations the political errors of Thomas Paine. Perhaps, however, Paine's work on finance may be in greater request on the continent than it is with us; and, if this be the case, the excellent quotations from Adam Smith, and the judicious opposition of one to the other, may be productive of some benefit. In this island the performance will not be eagerly sought; the topics are trite; and whatever the parties among us may think of the liberties reciprocally taken, all will be inclined to censure the foreigner who calls himself a cosmopolite, and yet discusses various questions relating to our constitution and government with the spirit and the personalities of a party writer.

L A W.

The Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas. Originally compiled by George Crompton, Esq. Revised, corrected, and newly arranged, by Baker John Sellon, Serjeant at Law. The second Edition, with the Addition of the modern Cases to the present Time, and a practical Treatise on the Mode of passing Fines, and suffering Recoveries. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. boards. Butterworth. 1798.

Mr. Sellon's Practice is a compilation of acknowledged utility; and in the present edition there are corrections which evince the judgment of the compiler, as well as additions which increase the value of his work. The arrangement is, we think, improved, particularly in restoring the introduction, originally prefixed to Crompton's Practice, to its proper place, the beginning of the first volume.

A Treatiſe on the Law of Homicide and of Larceny at common Law, by Robert Bevill, of the Inner Temple, Eſq. Barriſter at Law. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Clarke *and* Son.

As an uncertainty much to be regretted has frequently prevailed in the conſtruction of facts, charged as amounting to the offences of homicide and larceny, Mr. Bevill has carefully collected the various authorities on theſe important ſubjects, and has ſtated the principles which he ſuppoſes muſt have influenced the deciſion of the judges in many doubtful caſes, with a correctneſs of inference, and a preciſion of language, which merit the applauſe of his profeſſion.

RELIGION.

The Inſufficiency of the Light of Nature exemplified in the Vices and Depravity of the Heathen World, including ſome Strictures on Payne's Age of Reaſon. 1s. 6d. Arch. 1797.

In the controverſy excited by the appearance of the Age of Reaſon, this able defence of revealed religion eſcaped our notice. Written in a cool diſpaſſionate manner, it attacks infidelity in its ſtrong holds. A compariſon is well drawn between the morality of the heathens (both the common people and philoſophers) and that of the Chriſtians; and the ignorance of the former with reſpect to the true God is contraſted with the purer knowledge on that ſubject, which lies open to the meaneſt Chriſtian in the Scriptures. To Paine's aſſertions, facts derived from hiſtory and the opinions ſolemnly given by philoſophers are oppoſed. The writer is a man of great reading, which he employs with judgement; and he preſents, within a ſmall compaſs, a maſs of evidence, which we think will have a conſiderable effect upon every candid and reflecting reader. It will perhaps be difficult to prevail upon thoſe who have been ſeduced by the flippancy of Paine to examine the arguments which cool reaſoning can bring againſt him; but ſuch as are ſincere lovers of truth may be induced to conſider this work as containing a complete refutation of Paine's general arguments againſt revelation.

Sermons on a future State. By the Rev. R. Shepherd, D. D. Archdeacon of Bedford. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Nicol.

The work does not correſpond with its title, as only the third ſermon is publiſhed. The chief object of this diſcourſe is to prove, that the moment of death is the moment of introduction into another ſtate of being, and that the ſuppoſition of the *ſleep* (as it is called) *of the ſoul* is without foundation. The uſual arguments are brought forward in favour of the writer's opinion. We do not think that he has given them new force, or that he is likely, by his ſtile or compoſition, to rouſe the public to a re-conſideration of this queſtion.

A Sermon preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, before his Majesty, and both Houses of Parliament, on Tuesday, December 19, 1797; *being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By George, Lord Bishop of Lincoln.* 4to. 1s. Cadell. 1798.

With regard to this sermon, preached on a most solemn occasion, we are sorry to observe, that it is not entirely free from those objections which we have been under the necessity of making to so many discourses on similar subjects. The praise of ourselves, and the reproof of our enemies, are dangerous topics in a Christian pulpit.

'While our enemies have insulted the Majesty of Heaven, we have humbled ourselves before our God, and acknowledged our transgressions. While they have impiously denied his all-controuling power, we have prayed unto the Lord to give wisdom to our councils, success to our arms, and steadiness to our people.' P. 16.

In this strain several other parts of the sermon are composed, so as to diminish the pleasure derivable from the preacher's enumeration of the blessings showered down upon us by Providence, and the consequent grounds for national thanksgiving.

A Sermon preached in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, on Thursday, November 29, 1798, *being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving, &c. By the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D. D. of Queen's College, Oxford: with Annotations. Published at the Request of the Royal Wakefield Volunteers.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

Brother Munkhouse (we allude to the title prefixed to his name in the discourse delivered by him before the society of free and accepted masons*), has favoured the public with a second thanksgiving sermon, overflowing with zeal and loyalty. A very small part of this discourse is confined to religious topics. A torrent of declamation is poured out against our Gallic foes; against all the abettors of a 'mis-shapen and monstrous democracy;' against 'the restless demagogues' in Ireland; and against all, of every rank, order, and description, who dare to entertain a different opinion on any political subject from this reverend preacher, who so loudly beats his 'pulpit drum ecclesiastic.' Our politico-reverend *brother* boldly throws down the gauntlet of defiance against all who arraign the wisdom or the measures of his majesty's ministers; and, in the fierceness of his indiscriminate attacks, news-rooms, coffee-houses, provincial and metropolitan booksellers, circulating libraries, and periodical reviews, receive their share of abuse. All

* See our last volume, p. 463.

this may be ſavoury meat to ſome, while by others it may be conſidered as a proſtitution of talents. Indeed the ſermon is, for the moſt part, a political rhapſody, unworthy of the occaſion upon which, and the place where, it was delivered.

Morning and Evening Prayers, for the uſe of Individuals, to which are added Prayers on particular Subjects. 12*mo.* 2*s.* Johnſon. 1798.

This collection is ſtated to be 'printed at the expence of the ſociety of unitarian Chriſtians, eſtabliſhed in the weſt of England for promoting Chriſtian knowledge and the practice of virtue by the diſtribution of books.' A ſimilar volume of prayers for the uſe of families was before publiſhed by the ſame ſociety.

The expreſſions are ſtrictly adapted to the uſe of perſons of unitarian ſentiments; but the ſubjects introduced do not appear to be ſufficiently comprehenſive.

A plain and popular View of ſome of the leading Evidences of Chriſtianity. By T. Toller. 12*mo.* 4*d.* Conder.

'I can ſcarcely ſatisfy myſelf to draw to a cloſe without remarking that, after all, the moſt valuable proof of evangelical truth ariſes from perſonal experience of its happy effects.' P. 22.

To this ſentence we readily ſubſcribe, being convinced that the evidence of Chriſtianity is plain to the ſerious readers of ſcripture, and that there is little danger from infidelity where the preacher is careful to impreſs upon his audience the ſimple truths of the goſpel: without ſuch care, all diſcuſſions of evidence muſt, for the perſons for whoſe uſe this ſermon is intended, be of no importance. We do not approve this writer's mode of noticing, in the pulpit, 'Gulliver's Travels, the Arabian Nights, Robinſon Cruſoe, Moorfields, Paradiſe Loſt, Rollin, Calvin, newſpapers, Doddridge, Bamfylde Moore Carew, Jonathan Wild,' &c. In a place dedicated to the delivery of the moſt momentous truths, the mind ſhould not be diverted by unſeaſonable, indecorous, or vulgar alluſions.

MEDICAL PHILOSOPHY.

A View of the Science of Life; on the Principles Eſtabliſhed in the Elements of Medicine, of the late celebrated John Brown, M. D. With an attempt to correct ſome important Errors of that Work; and Caſes in Illuſtration, chiefly ſelected from the Records of their Practice, at the general Hoſpital, at Calcutta. By William Yates and Charles Maclean. 8*vo.* Philadelphia. 1797.

We have not lately met with a more remarkable work than the preſent. The author appears to poſſeſs a ſtrong mind: he often reaſons correctly, and determines with judgment; yet the volume is occaſionally exceptionable. The introduction comprehends an

eulogium on the late Dr. Brown, and an account of the very rapid progreſs of his opinions. A clear ſyſtematic view of theſe opinions is added, with ſome neceſſary corrections. The doctrine of accumulated and exhauſted excitability, which we have admitted to a certain extent, and aſcribed, with a fluctuating heſitation, either to Brown or Girtanner, belongs, we find, to the former; but the whole is delivered, in this part of the work, in a more conſiſtent and regular form than it had before aſſumed.

The annexed caſes are intended to ſupport the Brunonian ſyſtem; but they diſplay the eager precipitance of a young practitioner. It muſt be remembered, that they are all inſtances of fever in a hot climate; and we have already noticed the good effects of mercury in theſe caſes. In reality, mercury and wine were the chief remedies; for opium, ſo profuſely given, could, in theſe large doſes, appear neither as an aſtringent, nor as a ſoporific. It might have added to the efficacy of the other remedies, as a ſimple ſtimulant.

The treatiſe on mercury is brought forward with a view of claiming the diſcovery of the utility of this medicine in fevers; but its uſe was known long before. That the ſoreneſs of the gums is the effect of its *remitted* action, is an idle fancy, which daily experience oppoſes. The ideas of the cauſes of the good effects of vegetable acids in ſcurvy, and of the nitric acid in ſyphilis, are equally trifling. That mercury is effectual, when it produces an increaſed flow of ſaliva only, not when it appears to occaſion ulcerations of the gums and fauces, is an opinion not ſupported by the experience of practitioners in warm climates.

The laſt eſſay is calculated to prove, that epidemics always ariſe from viciſſitudes in the ſtate of the atmoſphere, never from contagion. To this treatiſe we cannot aſſign the epithet even of ingenious. The reaſoning is deficient; and a confuſion between a prediſpoſing and an exciting cauſe frequently occurs.

An Eſſay on the Cauſes and Phenomena of Animal Life. By John Herdman, Member of the Medical Society, Edinburgh, and Surgeon in Leith. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Johnſon.

This is an accurate and elegant abſtract of the modern phyſiological doctrines. Through the whole, the author diſplays clear perceptions and diſcriminating judgment. He admits ſo much of Dr. Brown's ſyſtem as has appeared to us to be well-founded; and rejects, with propriety, the wild fancies of that phyſician.

That excitability is connected with organiſation, and, in its different ſtates, with weaker or ſtronger organiſation, ſeems to ſavour too much of modern jargon. We may take an opportunity of explaining ourſelves on the ſubject, and ſhall, in the mean time, enter our caveat againſt ſuch language. Of the kinds or degrees of organiſation we muſt remain ignorant.

What is ſaid of reſpiration and digeſtion demands our particular commendation. Upon the latter ſubject we may hint, that every

ingredient in the animal ſyſtem cannot be formally traced in the nouriſhment. It is, in many reſpects, greatly changed. The phoſphoric acid and the ſoda, in particular, ſeem to be new forms of ſome other ſubſtances, produced by new combinations or partial decompoſitions. The earth of bone in the adult is certainly the accumulated quantity of many years. It muſt indeed be admitted, that much earth is occaſionally diſcharged in the urine, as excrementitious; that, when ſupplies are wanted, the earthy diſcharge diminiſhes; and that when the bones ſoften, it increaſes. But this is the work of the animal œconomy; and, though in rickets we may ſupply the earthy ſalt, according to M. Bonhomme's ſyſtem, we have no means of directing its application.

TRAVELS.

Paul Hentzner's Travels in England, during the Reign of Queen Elizabeth, tranſlated by Horace, late Earl of Orford, and firſt printed by him at Strawberry Hill: to which is [*are*] *now added, Sir Robert Naunton's Fragmenta Regalia; or, Obſervations on Queen Elizabeth's Times and Favourites; with Portraits and Views. 8vo.* 15*s. Boards.* Jeffery. 1797.

The curious obſervations of a German traveller are here republiſhed in an Engliſh dreſs. They are frequently erroneous; but they give ſome idea of the ſtate of the country in the reign of Elizabeth, and of the manners of the times. We will quote, as a ſpecimen, the character of the Engliſh, though the paſſage is awkwardly tranſlated:

'The Engliſh are ſerious, like the Germans; lovers of ſhew, liking to be followed wherever they go by whole troops of ſervants, who wear their maſters' arms in ſilver, faſtened to their left arms, a ridicule they deſervedly lay under. They excel in dancing and muſic, for they are active and lively, though of a thicker make than the French; they cut their hair cloſe on the middle of the head, letting it grow on either ſide; they are good ſailors, and better pirates, cunning, treacherous, and thieviſh; above three hundred are ſaid to be hanged annually at London; beheading with them is leſs infamous than hanging; they give the wall as the place of honour; hawking is the general ſport of the gentry; they are more polite in eating than the French, devouring leſs bread, but more meat, which they roaſt in perfection; they put a great deal of ſugar in their drink; their beds are covered with tapeſtry, even thoſe of farmers; they are often moleſted with the ſcurvy, ſaid to have firſt crept into England with the Norman conqueſt; their houſes are commonly of two ſtories, except in London, where they are of three and four, though but ſeldom of four; they are built of wood, thoſe of the richer ſort with bricks; their roofs are low, and where the owner has money, covered with lead.

'They are powerful in the field, ſucceſsful againſt their enemies,

impatient of any thing like ſlavery; vaſtly fond of great noiſes that fill the ear, ſuch as the firing of cannon, drums, and the ringing of bells, ſo that it is common for a number of them, that have got a glaſs in their heads, to go up into ſome belfrey, and ring the bells for hours together for the ſake of exerciſe. If they ſee a foreigner very well made, or particularly handſome, they will ſay, It is a pity he is not an Engliſhman!' P. 63.

The Fragmenta Regalia comprehend the characters of Elizabeth, the earls of Leiceſter and Suſſex, the two Cecils, ſir Philip Sydney, ſir Francis Walſingham, the earl of Eſſex, and many other diſtinguiſhed perſons. The prints (eleven in number) are curious; but ſome of them are mere ſketches.

Travels in the Year 1792 through France, Turkey, and Hungary, to Vienna: concluding with an Account of that City. In a Series of familiar Letters to a Lady in England. By William Hunter, Eſq. of the Inner Temple. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. White. 1798.

We noticed the firſt appearance of theſe Travels in our Review for November, 1797. In the preſent edition the account is extended to another volume; but, before this augmentation of the work, we thought it ſufficiently long.

EDUCATION.

Scripture Hiſtories; or Intereſting Narratives extracted from the Old Teſtament, for the Inſtruction and Amuſement of Youth. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 2s. Newbery. 1798.

Theſe hiſtories are introduced in the courſe of a domeſtic narrative; and they are accompanied with pertinent remarks. The ſtory of Haman is the firſt; and the others are thoſe of Ruth, Joſeph, Job, Ananias and Sapphira, Gehazi, and Daniel. They are related with perſpicuity; and the work concludes with appropriate hymns for the morning and evening.

Moral Amuſement; or a Selection of Tales, Hiſtories, and intereſting Anecdotes; intended to amuſe and inſtruct young Minds. 12mo. Vernor *and* Hood. 1798.

Theſe tales are chiefly oriental. They are not ill ſelected, and may ſerve the combined purpoſes of utility and entertainment.

POETRY.

The Battle of the Nile, a Poem: by William Sotheby, Eſq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

This poem is correct, harmonious, and animated. The author, we may add, is a ſtrong Anti-Gallican; and, like moſt violent men, he eaſily believes what he eagerly wiſhes, as the following lines may tend to prove.

'How art thou fall'n! gaunt Famine, day by day,
Has trac'd from corſe to corſe thy deſperate way:
Strewn o'er the waſte th' expiring warriors lye,
Far Gallia floats before their cloſing eye,
While hov'ring vultures on a diſtant ſhore,
Shriek to their cry, and plunge their beaks in gore.

'The Arab war-horſe has thy ſtrength ſubdu'd,
And waded fetlock-deep in Gallic blood;
Preſs'd on thy ſteel, regardleſs of the wound,
Swept with red mane thy chiefs that bit the ground,
And, wildly neighing to the brazen roar,
Arch'd his proud creſt thy flaming phalanx o'er!

'Where reſts the chief, whoſe arm the battle led,
While kings and all their hoſts like ſhadows fled?
Who up the rampir'd height undaunted flew,
And o'er the crags his iron thunder drew,
Where nature, thron'd amid eternal ſnows,
Bad Alps on Alps the mountain barrier cloſe?
Where reſts the chief, who weigh'd the fate of Rome,
And ſign'd on Formio's field pale Auſtria's doom?—
Hark, the loud voice of rumour loads the gale,
And Europe ſpreads from realm to realm the tale:
He reſts in death, the dream of glory o'er,
He reſts untimely on a barbarous ſhore!—
Not in the front of war, 'mid armies ſlain,
Fell the bold conqueror, bleeding on the plain,
While Glory wav'd her banner o'er his head,
And ſooth'd the hero, as his ſpirit fled:
Lo! there he lies, by treach'ry girt around;
The grim aſſaſſin ſternly eyes the wound,
Taunts the invader, as he groans in death,
And loads with Egypt's curſe his parting breath.' P. 12.

The Battle of the Nile, a Dramatic Poem on the Model of the Greek Tragedy. 8vo. 2s. Faulder. 1799.

A feſtival is appointed at Paris in honour of the fall of England, an event of which the directors and the miniſter of war are in certain expectation. The 'ancient men of Paris,' who form the chorus, talk very prudently, and recite ariſtocratical odes. Tidings arrive of the reduction of Malta, and the conqueſt of Egypt; and, amidſt the general exultation, a meſſenger brings an account of Nelſon's victory. It is ſoon after announced, that Pruſſia is ſending 'hundreds of thouſands to attack the republic, and that Germany is again in arms.' Another meſſenger has ſeen

'The rous'd Seraglio's veteran files—'

the Ruſſians, the Coſacks, the Oſtiacks, the Tunguſii, the Tartars, 'Kalmucks, Fins, and Kamſchadals.'

'*Messenger*. At Naples, England's fleet and Nelson's name,
Triumphant through the eastern seas, have fir'd
Her councils, and the dubious legions rous'd.
The youth with patriot spirit rush to arms.
They leave their hills, and genial skies, and vines,
Their olive planted groves, and myrtle shores
Circling delightful bays: the wooded steeps,
And vales and streams romantic, far remov'd
In that blest isle beyond the roaring streight,
They leave, and under banners streaming wide,
Sown o'er with royal lilies, like a rock
Stand firm, and dare the conquering chiefs of France.
'*2nd. Director*. O England, there appears thy mighty arm.
But for thy prowess and triumphant fleet,
Sicilia for the worth of his high crown
Had not our anger dar'd: and but for thee
Had from his high throne fall'n, ere this, with shame.' P. 44.

We are surprised that no mention is made of general Mack.—Then comes an account of sir John Warren's victory; then of the insurrection in Belgium; and, at length, the ghost of Louis XVI. appears. The following is the last speech of the chorus.

'God of our fathers, in thy mercy, O
Shorten the time of our calamities:
In our extremest age, ere yet we go
Down to the grave, O grant that we may see
Our sons, to thee and to right reason turn'd,
Repose in peace, and live through prosperous days,
Their God their guardian, and their king their guide.' P. 64.

'The plan of this drama is adopted from the Persæ of Æschylus. The Greek poet composed his tragedy in order to gratify the feelings of his countrymen, by celebrating one of their most splendid successes over their inveterate enemies the Persians. As the British victory of the Nile is hardly inferior in brilliancy, and will perhaps be equally important in its consequences to the Athenian triumph at Salamis, the author does not know, in what manner he could more forcibly commemorate the illustrious exploit, than by adopting the same means, which were so successfully employed by the ancient poet.' P. iii.

The patriotic writer has been premature. He rejoices at the fall of France, in consequence of the victory of the Nile, with as much wisdom as his own directors celebrate the ruin of Great-Britain because the Mamelouks have been defeated.

The Niliad; an Epic Poem; written in Honour of the glorious Victory obtained by the British Fleet, under the Command of Rear Admiral Sir Horatio, now Lord Nelson, over a superior Fleet of the French, off the Mouth of the Nile, on the 1st of August, 1798. *Dedicated to the Right. Hon. Earl Spencer. By. W. Hildreth.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Hookham. 1799.

' The crippl'd remnant of his shatter'd line
Blanquet harangues and rallies—but in vain—
Pale horror in the form of British guns
Now spectre-like appears on ev'ry face:
See madness and despair his breast divide!
He swears—he storms—he prays—yet nought avails—
Exhausted each resource—what now remains?
He strikes—he yields a prisoner of war—
The Franklin with eight more the boast of Gaul
Surrender prizes to the British flag;
The rest escape and homeward shape their course
To tell their country the disastrous tale.—
' Great Jove, the arbitrator of the world,
By whose decision men and gods abide,
Supremely now upon his splendid throne
Sits in the vertex of celestial arch,
And with approving nod th' event surveys.—
" 'Tis well, he cries, be such the fall of pride—
'Tis well aspiring Gaul thy fate is such—
Should thy mad projects all successful prove,
The nether world would be incompetent
To satisfy thy boundless lust of power,
Or circumscribe thy limits of ambition:
And thou would'st next with Titan's giant pride
Against celestial order wage thy war."
Thus spake the thunderer—at his left hand
Stood Cynthia, swiftest messenger of heaven,
Array'd in silver sheen—whom he address'd—
" Haste to thy sylvan groves—prepare a crown
Of oak and laurel for brave Nelson's brow;
On which inscribe in characters of gold,
Which time shall n'er deface—*Britannia,*
Th' approv'd of gods—the sovereign of the waves—
So shall immortal fame inform the world
To what extent he merits praise divine."
Thus Jove decreed.' P. 28.

With all due respect for the genius of Mr. W. Hildreth, we would observe, that, in an epic poem upon a victory so peculiarly attributed to providence, it was injudicious to derive its success from the heathen gods, as, according to the most ancient and or-

thodox opinions, those deities were the fallen angels: Mr. Hildreth has therefore given the glory to the devil.

Song of the Battle of the Nile. Published for the Benefit of the Widows and Children of the brave Men who fell on that memorable Day, and humbly inscribed to the Gentlemen of the Committee. By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M. 4*to.* 1*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

'Aaron stretched out his hand over the waters of Egypt, and the frogs came up and covered the land of Egypt.' Scarcely less numerous and scarcely more musical are the poets who have swarmed in England since Nelson exercised his power on the Egyptian waters. But among these the song of Mr. Bowles is heard, like the voice of the nightingale compared with the noise of the night-croakers of the marsh.

We extract the conclusion of this masterly ode.

'And, oh! might he, at whose command
Deep darkness shades a mourning land,
At whose command, bursting from night,
And flaming with redoubled light,
The sun of Science mounts again
And re-illumes the wide-extended plain;
Might he, from this eventful day,
Illustrious Egypt! to thy shore
Science, Freedom, Peace restore,
And bid thy crowded ports their ancient pomp display!
No more should Superstition mark
In characters, uncouth and dark,
Her dreary, monumental shrine:
No more should meek-ey'd Piety
Outcast, insulted lie
Beneath the mosque whose golden crescents shine;
But starting from her trance,
O'er Nubia's sands advance
Beyond the farthest fountains of the Nile!
The dismal Galla's should behold her smile,
And Abyssinia's inmost rocks rejoice
To hear her awful lore, but soft consoling voice!

'Hasten, O God! the time, when never more
Pale Pity, from her moonlight seat shall hear
(And dropping at the sound a fruitless tear)
The far-off battle's melancholy roar;
When never more Horror's portentous cry
Shall sound amid the troubled sky;
Or dark Destruction's grimly-smiling mien,
Thro' the red flashes of the fight be seen!
Father in Heav'n! our ardent hopes fulfil—
Thou speakest "Peace," and the vex'd world is still!

Yet ſhould Oppreſſion huge ariſe,
And, with bloody banners ſpread,
Upon the gaſping nations tread,
Whilſt he thy name defies,
Truſting in thee alone, we hope to quell
His furious might, his purpoſe fell,
And as the enſigns of his baffled pride
O'er the ſeas are ſcatter'd wide,
We will take up a joyous ſtrain and cry
"Shout! for the Lord hath triumph'd gloriouſly." P. 11.

This poem will be read with delight, when the victory which it celebrates will be remembered like the conqueſts of Genghiz-khan or Timur, events bloody indeed and glorious, but unimportant in their conſequences.

Nilus; an Elegy. Occaſioned by the Victory of Admiral Nelſon over the French Fleet, on Auguſt 1, 1798. *By Eyles Irwin, Eſq.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Nicol. 1798.

Of the writers who have celebrated lord Nelſon's victory, Mr. Irwin is almoſt the only one who has treated the foe with decent reſpect. We ſelect with pleaſure his concluding ſtanzas.

'Nor him may courage long, nor ſkill avail,
The aſſaſſin's ſteel or drug, aſide to turn;
Quick ſhall the powers of Buonaparte fail,
If, through his veins, peſtiferous torrents burn.

Then, of his numerous hoſt, the victims brief
Of fell ambition! will a friend be found,
To pay juſt honours to their mighty chief,
And bid his tomb unfading bays ſurround.

O! if a foe the chaplet freſh may twine
For thy deſert, which envy might preſage;
To lateſt times thy memory conſign,
To live, with Cæſar's, in the heroic page:

A ſigh is due to talents miſapply'd;
A waſte of prowefs, and of martial lore:
Which deluged Europe with a crimſon tide,
And hurl'd Alecto's brands on Afric's ſhore.

When ſummer ſuns, diſſolving Nilus' trance,
O'er thirſty Delta lift his fruitful wave;
The tearful *lotus*, from the gay expanſe,
Shall bend her cup to dew the hero's grave!

And when the winter ſolſtice bids retire
His world of waters to their narrow bed,
The tall *papyrus* yearly ſhall aſpire,
To bear a fragile record of the dead!' P. 14.

DRAMA.

False and True, a Play in three Acts, now performing at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket. 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1798.

We cannot ſay much in commendation of this play. An Italian villain, a faithful ſervant, and a blundering Iriſhman, afford little novelty. The piece, however, contains nothing that particularly deſerves to be cenſured.

A Day at Rome: a Muſical Entertainment, in Two Acts. As it was damned at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden, on Thurſday, October 11, 1798. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1798.

The ſucceſs of theſe dramatic trifles ſeems to depend more upon the humour of the audience than upon the merit of the piece. Of our modern farces many are worſe than the Day at Rome.

NOVELS.

The Natural Son; a Novel; in Two Volumes. Tranſlated from the French of M. Diderot, Author of the Nun, James the Fataliſt, &c. 12mo. 7s. Longman. 1799.

The literary reputation of Diderot is ſufficient to recommend this novel to notice. The tranſlator obſerves, in his preface, that he has taken ſome liberties with the original, with a view of adapting the ſtory to the delicacy of the Engliſh reader. By this judicious precaution he has removed every obſtacle to the peruſal of a work which abounds with ſentimental beauties, and the incidents of which, though not numerous, are calculated to excite conſiderable intereſt. The language of the tranſlation is reſpectable, and is, in many parts, a ſucceſsful imitation of the warm and empaſſioned ſtyle of the original.

A Tale of the Times. By the Author of a Goſſip's Story. 3 *Vols.* 8vo. 12s. Longman. 1799.

The readers of this tale will derive a gratification ſuperior to that which is uſually communicated by ſimilar productions. The ſtory repreſents the gradual ſeduction of a young married lady of high rank and great accompliſhments, by the ſpecious arts of a *philoſophical* villain, who employs the ſentimental ſophiſtry of the new ſchool of morals to corrupt the notions, and deſtroy the happineſs, of an amiable and too credulous pupil.

The authoreſs of this work is already diſtinguiſhed in the circle of literature; and her reputation will doubtleſs be conſiderably increaſed by the propriety of ſentiment, correct delineation of character, and nervous compoſition, which theſe volumes exhibit.

Sketches of Modern Life; or Man as he ought to be. A Novel. 2 *Vols.* 12mo. 7s. Miller. 1799.

In theſe ſketches, the delineator principally aims at expoſing the evils of illegitimacy, ariſing from the cruelty of thoſe parents who

neglect to provide for their natural children, or who, while they do provide for them, keep them ignorant of their birth and connections. Lord Arrowsworth has a natural son by a lady who happens to have another by a different person. The two young men are brought up in ignorance of their parents, and yet are amply supplied with the requisites of fashionable life. They frequently meet in the same gay circles; and, by the artifices of a female dæmon, they are involved in a duel, in which one of them, lord Arrowsworth's son, falls. Such a catastrophe is perhaps more shocking than was necessary to correct the pride of the peer; but, as the events are here contrived, it is poetically just. Upon the whole, this production is superior to many of our modern novels.

The Invasion; or what might have been. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Symonds. 1798.

This *warning* consists of few incidents. A town is besieged: an English officer, who had courted the governor's daughter without success, goes over to the invading enemy, and obtains a chief command; he takes the town in which his mistress resides with her father, and endeavours to force her to his purposes: after a series of persecution, however, she is rescued by the national troops. Scarcely any allusions are made to the invaders; and, with the title of a political novel, this has only the common interest of a hackneyed story, full of trite sentiments and tedious repetitions.

Gomez and Eleonora: translated from a Spanish Manuscript. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Wallis. 1798.

We are informed in the preface, that this 'narrative was communicated to the translator in manuscript, with permission to make what use of it he should think proper;' and he thought *proper* to publish it 'with all its imperfections on its head,' with all its indecent scenes, and immoral sentiments—with even a story of *incest*, related in terms which seem almost to imply approbation.

Confessions of a Beauty. From the French. 2 Vols. 7s. Lane. 1798.

If this novel had remained in its original language, the interests of morality would have suffered less than they now do from its more extended circulation. The *Beauty* is one of those refined voluptuaries who, by circumstances only, are removed from the shame of public prostitution; and her confessions are calculated to promote that promiscuous gallantry which disgraced the manners of France under the *ancien régime.*

The Solemn Injunction. A Novel. By Agnes Musgrave, Author of Cicely of Raby, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. Lane. 1798.

Not quite so dull as many *solemn* things of the same kind, nor sufficiently interesting to any beside the *persevering* readers, by whose appetite for fictitious narratives our circulating libraries are supported.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

A Letter to the Church of England, pointing out some popular Errors of bad Consequence. By an old Friend and Servant of the Church. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1798.

The first subject upon which this old friend to the church enters, is government; and, in his detestation of the abominable doctrine that the power 'of government is from the people who are governed,' he observes, 'that the people are a large body; but government is as much *bigger* than they, as the sun is *bigger* than the earth.' Revolution and schism are his next topics. It is evident that modern politics were more in his thoughts than the wisdom which comes from above. We little expected so much abuse of Locke from one who, in speaking of human authority, tells us, 'It is an honour to submit our faculties to God, who gave them; but it is base and servile to submit to the usurpations of man, in things pertaining to God.' This is sound protestant doctrine, the doctrine for which Locke was the most strenuous advocate. Having thus selected the best remark that appears in the work before us, we recommend it to the serious reflections of the author, that he may make his letter fit for the perusal of the persons to whom it is addressed.

Letters on important Subjects. Addressed to the ruling Elders of the Church of Scotland. 8vo. Dickson, Edinburgh.

With some good remarks on the character, example, and manners, of an elder, and on other topics, the author has mingled so much asperity, that his work is not likely to have much influence on the persons to whom it is particularly dedicated. We can scarcely believe that there is any ground for the accusation contained in the following paragraph:

'I have to accuse the elders of the church of Scotland, men of general good morals, and of general regard for religion, men of general propriety of sentiment, and refinement of understanding; I have to accuse them of treating religion with irreverence, and abetting the cause of vice by their manner, behaviour, conversation, and expression.' P. 32.

The writer shelters himself under general heads of accusation; and perhaps he may have an insulated instance on which he grounds his attack; but charges of so heinous a nature should not be adduced against a respectable body, unless the accuser can specify time, place, and persons: had he done this, we cannot doubt that many champions would have stood up in defence of the elders of Scotland.

Considerations upon Frauds on the Revenue. Addressed to the serious good Sense of the People of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The fraudulent practices of men in any respect cannot be too se-

verely expofed ; but the frauds committed on the revenue in the prefent times do not feem to us to have any connection with the origin to which they are referred in this pamphlet. They are traced to difputes on the fucceffion, and revolutions in the government. We rather attribute them to the greatnefs of the temptation to fraud, the facility of committing it, and the decline of a principle of honour in the nation. The attempt to make the character of an informer refpectable is inefficacious ; for, in all countries where recourfe has been had to fuch means in aid of government, the informers have been always holden in contempt by their employers, and in abhorrence by the public in general.

An Apology for the Miffionary Society. By John Wilks. 8*vo.* 1*s*. 6*d*. Chapman. 1799.

Mr. Wilks hints that this is a juvenile performance ; which indeed we might have conjectured from the warmth and animation of ftyle, and the profufion of extravagant metaphor. It was read to a private fociety as an anfwer to the queftion,—' Whether the conduct of the American quakers, *for* emancipating their flaves, or of the miffionary fociety, for propagating Chriftianity in heathen countries, be more deferving of encouragement and applaufe.' The author decides in favour of the miffionary fociety ;' but, although he pays many compliments to the quakers, he does not preclude us from thinking that the queftion itfelf was impertinent and invidious.

The Balnea : or, an impartial Defcription of all the popular Watering Places in England. By George Saville Carey. 12*mo.* 3*s*. *Sewed.* Weft. 1799.

Although there is fome truth in what Mr. Carey afferts of our fafhionable watering-places, yet, in general, we apprehend, he has miftaken feverity for impartiality. With an exception of the cafe of Bath, and of one or two more places of this kind, his defcription would difcourage the moft idle of our fummer loungers from taking their ufual relaxation. Margate, Brighthelmfton, and Tunbridge, muft be deferted, if Mr. Carey's judgment fhould be followed. So numerous, however, are the vifitants of watering-places in thefe days, that we fhall leave to fome of them to determine points of difference, all of which it is not in our power from perfonal knowledge to adjuft. Interfperfed are fome popular fongs, and fome cauftic remarks, not wholly unjuft, on the more fuccefsful rival of Mr. Carey in that fpecies of compofition. Our author has alfo employed feveral pages in endeavouring to prove that his father wrote the fong of ' God fave the king.'

ERRATUM.

In p. 236 of this volume, line 24, for *mathema*, read *anathema.*